

SCHOOL OF NATURE



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**FOR PUBLISHED
INFORMATION****ON:**

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School Legislation

Exceptional Child
Education

Rural School Problems

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Educational Tests and
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SCHOOL LIFE



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Congress, in 1867, established the Office of Education to "collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories"; to "diffuse such information as shall aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems"; and "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." To diffuse expeditiously information and facts collected, the Office of Education publishes SCHOOL LIFE, a monthly service, October through July. SCHOOL LIFE provides a national perspective of education in the United States.

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E D I T O R I A L



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JULY 1939

On This Month's Cover

Many educational leaders who have attended the National Education Association convention in San Francisco in July, will become nature students in such groups as the one shown on SCHOOL LIFE's cover page this Month. We appreciate the courtesy of the National Park Service in giving us this picture, which shows a naturalist-guided bird study group on the banks of Yosemite Creek in the Yosemite National Park.

Among the Authors

BEN M. CHERRINGTON, Chief, Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State, in his article on *Cultural Ties That Bind in the Relations of the American Nations* urges that "our Government is performing its part in furthering the good neighbor policy, but the good neighbor policy can never be carried to completion by Government action alone; it remains for the people to play their part."

CARL A. JESSEN, specialist in secondary education, discusses the *Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards*. Mr. Jessen, in presenting some recommendations, says that "the most significant procedures tested and recommended by the cooperative study involve a thorough canvass of the facilities of

Language a Basis of International Friendship

THROUGHOUT the long development of American education it has been natural to regard Europe as our educational neighbors. The scientific and artistic literature of Germany and France has seemed more significant to our scholars than has the literature in other foreign languages. Consequently the principal modern foreign languages, developed in the high schools in this country, have been French and German.

With the rapid changes taking place in international relationships, the question of what foreign languages are most appropriate for high-school study must be examined from a somewhat different point of view. Especially is it true that with the strengthening of pan-Americanism and the vitalizing of our good-neighbor policy with Central and South America, Spanish and perhaps Portuguese become exceedingly important. Commercially we need this common medium of exchange of ideas. More significant still, we need it as a means of understanding the aspirations and cultural development of our southern neighbors. Widespread familiarity in this country with the Spanish language and to some interest at least with the Portuguese language is one of the surest ways to build up friendly relations with the countries whose native speech is Spanish or Portuguese.

All the educational agencies in this country which have hitherto encouraged French and German as high-school foreign languages should now also give definite encouragement to Spanish. This is particularly true in the case of colleges which require foreign languages for admission. It is to be hoped that no high-school student will be penalized for his choice of Spanish as a foreign language when he comes up for entrance to college.

Commissioner of Education.

the school and the utilization of those facilities."

ELISE H. MARTENS, specialist in the education of exceptional children, presents the last of a series of articles dealing with residential schools. In this article Dr. Martens discusses *Residential Schools for Deaf Children*.

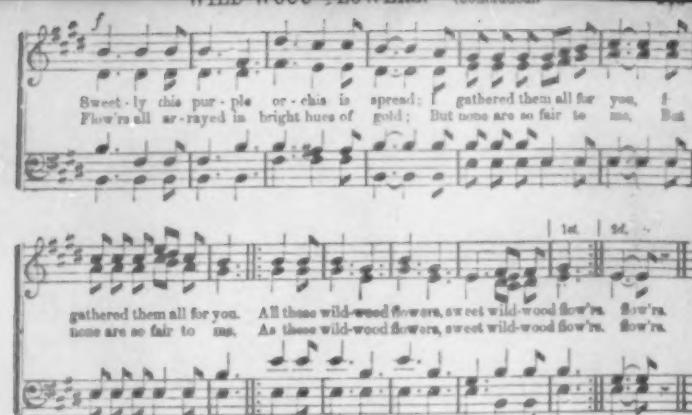
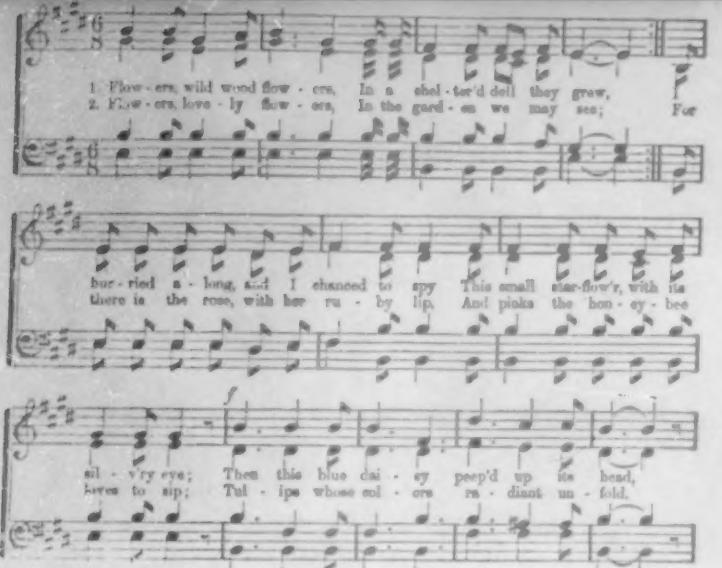
JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS, M. D., consultant in hygiene, writes this month on the subject *From Evil Spirits to Microbes*. The information presented will be found in the foreword furnished by the Office of Education for a publication on communicable diseases being issued by the United States Public Health Service. The publication is intended

for use in connection with courses in hygiene in high schools and colleges.

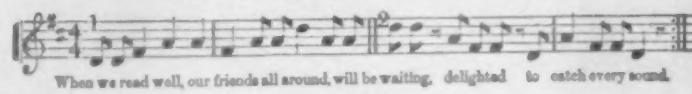
Revised Material

The Medical Research Council of England has recently revised its work on *Alcohol, Its Action on the Human Organism*. The committee on revision consisted of two pharmacologists, Cushney and Dale; a physiologist, Sherrington, a psychologist, McDougall; and a statistician, Greenwood, all of international fame.

The work furnishes in small compass the most valuable material ... teaching in this field. The publication is available through the British Library of Information, 270 Madison Avenue, New York City.



WHEN WE READ WELL—Round for Two Parts.



Early American School Music Books

by Martha R. McCabe, Assistant Librarian

★★★ The story of the earliest school music books in America, going back to the turn of the nineteenth century at least, is a short one and soon told. There were very few of them in fact, and the first used were not textbooks at all as we today think of the word. Regardless of the name we give them, the little books that were instrumental in developing the musical side of our ancestors' education are discussed here, in an attempt to show what they contained and who wrote them.

Our American forefathers being descendants of Puritans and religious zealots for the most part, found their first songs in their hymn books, and they sang them in the "Meeting House" and in the home. So our story opens with the oldest of the quaint little songbooks, those used in religious services—their hymn books. The old and the young, and those in between, found their musical outlet and their "self-expression" in singing out lustily on hymns. We know that it was lustily and heartily and not always tunefully on selections like "Old Hundred." While we today would not look upon hymn books as tools for teaching music in the schools the hymn books were used at first for this purpose.

The Singing School

The next step in the improvement of singing was the "Singing School." It was first held in the meeting house, and the schoolhouse, and was "seemly" in character. It was well attended, became popular, and vocal music improved. Because there were but few copies of their music books, the music master "lined out" the words, and considerable progress was made in ability to carry the tunes. The music used in the singing schools soon changed and became more tuneful and sprightly, and before long the singing school developed into an

important feature in the social life of the community.

One of the most remarkable volumes for the use of singing schools was that composed by Lowell Mason, *Musical Exercises for Singing Schools, to be Used in Connection with the Manual of The Boston Academy of Music, for Instruction in the Elements of Vocal Music*. This was published in Boston by G. W. Palmer & Co., and J. H. Wilkins and R. B. Carter, in 1838. It is a very large folio volume, consisting of charts with music notation in large characters suitable for classes or groups. This volume is not to be confused with a series of charts and courses worked out for grades, progressing from the lower to the higher grades, by Luther Whiting Mason, mentioned later in this article.

By this time, our forefathers evidently saw the importance of introducing the teaching of music in the public schools, and just a little over 100 years ago, Lowell Mason succeeded in doing this. It has been pretty well established that Lowell Mason (1792-1872) should be given the title of "Father of Public-School Music." Music was not considered a "fad or a frill" in 1831, as our ancestors felt deeply that music was a side of their natures that should be trained and developed. In reading of their efforts to get music into the curriculum it has seemed not so difficult as it has been to keep it in, a century later during the financial depression.

Owing to Mason's influence and labors, music was taken up in earnest first in Boston in the Mount Vernon school for girls, under Jacob Abbott; in Chauncey Hall school for boys, under G. F. Thayer; and in Monitorial school for girls under George W. Fowle. The Pestalozzian system was in common use in Europe, particularly in Germany and Switzerland, and Mason was influenced by William

C. Woodbridge, the writer of geography textbooks, to use that system in teaching music in the schools, the same as the other subjects of the curriculum. Several trips to Europe convinced Mason of its value, and he enthusiastically adopted and used it thereafter.¹

Lack of School Music Texts

Mason's classes with children outside of school hours which he had undertaken and for several years carried on gratis, were held two afternoons a week on Wednesday and Saturday, and several thousand children of Boston were trained in this way. The public juvenile concerts which he gave sold his plan to the Boston public, and before long music was actually made a part of the school curriculum. One problem Mason met at the outset was the lack of school music texts to work with, so he was forced to write them himself. The "hymn book as a textbook" idea was being forced out of the picture; something different was called for. A new type of book appeared, the contents were modified, the children's songs were of a brighter and happier nature, many dealing with nature subjects, the favorites being flowers, birds, moonlight, boating-on-the-lake, rain, snowstorms, love, etc. These tunes and words took the place of sad and mournful ones that had been "lined out" in the meeting house, but the strongly religious tendency was still apparent. Mason himself had been the composer of a number of the still popular hymns, viz., From Greenland's Icy Mountains (Missionary hymn), Hark, Ten Thousand Harps and Voices, Nearer My God to Thee, My Faith Looks Up to Thee, Blest Be The Tie That Binds, and others.

¹ Henry Barnard Lowell Mason. American Journal of Education, vol. iv, p. 142.

CHILD'S SONG BOOK,

FOR THE USE OF

SCHOOLS AND FAMILIES;

REINING A SELECTION OF

FAVOURITE AIRS,

WITH

HYMNS AND MORAL SONGS,

SUITABLE FOR

INFANT INSTRUCTION.

Augustus Peabody Esq. Boston Mass.

We will our little voices raise,
To sing a Father's love;
And here in peace and fervent spirits,
To sing who rules above.

Boston:

PUBLISHED BY RICHARDSON, LORD & HOLBROOK.
No. 420, Washington Street.

1830.

From the Child's Song Book, by
Augustus Peabody. 1830.

Another conspicuous point in connection with the development of this subject was that the rudiments of music were introduced in the shape of "Lessons"—chapters or sections, which were given in the first or the last pages of the songbooks. These lessons were quite elementary, and were mostly of the question-and-answer type, illustrated with songs, chants, rounds, etc., accompanying the text. "Singing by rote" was changing rapidly to "singing by note."

Lowell Mason's first contribution to the literature on this subject was *The Juvenile Lyre*, conceded by most authorities to be the first school music book published in this country. This was in 1831, in Boston, from the print shop of Richardson, Lord and Holbrook, and was written in collaboration with his assistant, Elam Ives, Jr. A copy of this book, now very rare, is in the Library of Congress, Music Division, Washington. (See illustration.)

The song Wild-Wood Flowers in Mason's *Song Garden, Book 1*, is said to have been the first song ever sung in unison by school pupils in Boston and probably in America.² A print from this book is given.

Lowell Mason became associated with Horace Mann, the first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, and was instructor of music in the first regular Teachers' Institute ever held in this country, at Boston, in August 1834. He trained teachers of music for a number of years. Horace Mann said of him:

"It was well worth any young teacher's while to walk 10 miles to hear a lecture of Dr. Mason; for in it he would hear a most instructive exposition of the true principles

of all teaching, as well as that of instruction in music."³

Another early writer of music books for children was Augustus Peabody. The title page of his little volume does not show his name, but it has been supplied in pencil by the cataloger and is understood to be authentic. The title of the book is *The Child's Song Book*, for the use of schools and families. It was published in Boston by Richardson, Lord and Holbrook, in 1830. On the reverse of the title page of a rare copy in the Library of Congress, Music Division is the following statement in faded penciling:

"This was the first juvenile singing book ever made in the United States. The Juvenile Lyre, by Lowell Mason, was the second,

From the Child's Song Book, by
Augustus Peabody. 1830.

published in 1831." The initials of the writer of the above were given, but the owner had not been verified.

Still another of the earliest pioneers in the writing of school music books was Charles Aiken, of Cincinnati, who was a little later than Lowell Mason, but about the same time as Luther Whiting Mason. Aiken and some of his associates among the music teachers of the Cincinnati schools compiled the volumes *The Young Singer*, parts I and II, dated 1860, and *The Young Singer's Manual*, a new collection of songs and *solfeggios* for the use of schools, academies, and colleges, dated 1866. Aiken also edited *The Cincinnati Music Readers*, for elementary grades, *The High School*

² A. W. Brayley; Musician, November 1905.

³ Henry Barnard, opus cit. p. 146.

Choralist and Choralist's Companion for high schools. Many masterpieces in music were presented in these volumes, such as *Lift Thine Eyes*, from the oratorio *Elijah*; selections from *St. Paul*, by Mendelssohn; Mozart's *Don Giovanni*; and various adaptations from the composition of Hayden, Beethoven, and others.

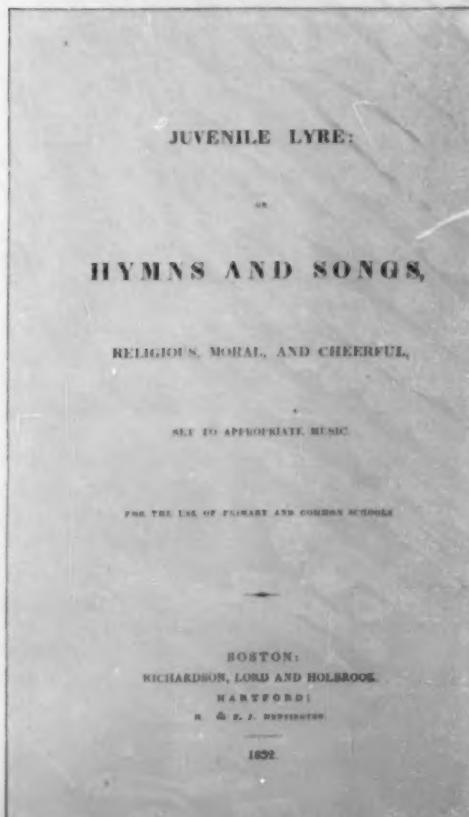
Another Mason, the Luther Whiting Mason previously referred to, was also an early teacher of music and a writer of school music books for children. He was a student of Lowell Mason's, but quite certainly not a relative according to information from the Mason family.⁴ Born in New England, he was a teacher of music in the public schools of Gorham, Philadelphia, Louisville, Ky., and later in the elementary schools of Boston. He was ardent in his enthusiasm for teaching children of primary age especially, and was also a devotee of the Pestalozzian method of teaching. He began his teaching by working out a system of books and charts for each grade, by means of which the pupils progressed step by step through primary and elementary and secondary grades from "rote to note." This series was published by Munroe of the New England Conservatory of Music, but was not really a great success until much later when Lawler tells us that the system became a success from the Atlantic to the Pacific and was translated into other languages and used especially in Germany and Japan. This Mason course is credited with having "done more for the cause of music in the schools of this country than any single factor since graded education began."

The music in the schools was all vocal, at this early date, the teacher usually singing with the class. The blackboard was used for

⁴ Music Teachers' National Association. Proceedings, 1913. Article by Frances M. Dickey, p. 106.

(Concluded on page 319)

From The Juvenile Lyre, by Lowell Mason



JUVENILE LYRE:

HYMNS AND SONGS,

RELIGIOUS, MORAL, AND CHEERFUL,

SET TO APPROPRIATE MUSIC.

FOR THE USE OF ELEMENTARY AND COMMON SCHOOLS

BOSTON:
RICHARDSON, LORD AND HOLBROOK
HARTFORD:
N. & D. J. DURRANT

1831.

Cultural Ties That Bind in the Relations of the American Nations

by Ben M. Cherrington, Chief, Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State

★★★ Favorable as are the geographical, economic, and political relations of the Americas, it would be vain to hope that these could insure a happy and peaceful future were we to remain cultural aliens. Where men's minds and hearts remain closed to each other eventually misunderstanding and discord arise in their commercial and political relations. It is of the utmost importance that the people of the Americas shall know and understand each other: Their history, their outlook on life, their ideals and aspirations, their finest creations in the realm of mind and spirit; these must be shared in common.

On every hand is unmistakable evidence of the eager desire of our people for a better knowledge and understanding of our neighbors to the south and in turn to be known and understood by them. Anyone who has recently visited the other American States will testify as to their readiness to share their cultural and intellectual attainments with us.

These mutual aspirations will be realized not by considering culture in a general and vague sense, but by dealing with it in terms of specific cultural interests. We do not establish strong ties with others by exchanging culture in general, but rather by sharing some interest or activity which has rich meaning for each of us. Here we have the clue as to the method we must employ in cultural exchange and intellectual cooperation between ourselves and our neighbors.

People having common interests here and there must be brought into effective relationship with each other, enabling them to freely interchange their experiences and achievements. It is out of such exchange of interests and pooled endeavors that enduring friendships arise. A considerable amount of such interchange between citizens of the United States and citizens of the other American countries has long been practiced, but it has been intermittent and uncoordinated. Endowments, foundations, educational institutions, and numerous societies in our country have made laudable contributions to our knowledge of the cultural and intellectual attainments of our neighbors and to their knowledge of us. Nevertheless, the activities of our private institutions have been handicapped by the lack of an agency in our Government to stimulate, coordinate, and facilitate their endeavors. To meet this need the

Division of Cultural Relations has been established in the Department of State. This new Division will serve as a central agency working with and through the private institutions and societies which seek to improve cultural relations. It will act as a coordinating and clearing center for activities of the Federal Government pertaining to cultural and intellectual exchange. It will also cooperate with and on behalf of the United States in every practicable way aid the work of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union. It need hardly be said that the Division of Cultural Relations will not supplant or infringe upon the activities of private agencies, for a program of cultural relations that is true to the traditions and instincts of our country will always originate with the people themselves.

It will clarify and give point to our discussion if we review some of the specific activities that find an important place in a cultural-relations program. These cover so wide a range that practically every citizen will find one or more of peculiar interest to him.

Exchange Scholarships and Professorships

One of the immediately practical projects is to increase the number of exchange scholarships and professorships between the American Republics and ourselves. Within recent months several universities, colleges, and cultural institutions have announced the creation of new scholarships and fellowships for students from Latin America. With the aid of interested citizens many others doubtless will take similar action. Ten countries including the United States have ratified the convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations approved at the Buenos Aires Conference of 1936. This convention provides for the annual exchange by each of the contracting parties of two graduate students or teachers and one professor. It is anticipated that the convention may be put into operation in the near future. The Division of Cultural Relations will have the responsibility for administering these exchanges.

The broad field of education offers a wide range of opportunities for cultural interchange. Boards of Education might well arrange for some of their teachers of Spanish, Portuguese, and French to change places for a year with native teachers of English in the American Republics each shifting to the teaching of his own language while abroad. My colleague in

the Division of Cultural Relations, Dr. Richard Pattee, has the following to say regarding the significance of the teaching of romance languages in our schools and higher institutions:

"This Western Hemisphere offers unlimited opportunities for the effective stimulation of interest in three of the great modern languages, Spanish, French, and Portuguese. The proximity of the Spanish-speaking countries and the access to two French-language regions, Canada and Haiti, should make possible a much broader program of exchange and contact than has heretofore existed. There is no question that an increase in the effectiveness of instruction in the principal languages of America is a *sine qua non* in the achievement of a program of cultural relations. It is almost trite to assert that ignorance of the vehicle of expression of a culture obviously makes impossible a comprehension and adequate appreciation of the richness which that culture represents. The Spanish language has long held an honorable place in the school curricula of this country. There is, however, much opportunity for improvement. We perhaps lose sight of the fact that Spanish is one of the most vigorous of living tongues, world-wide in its diffusion, tremendously vital in its capacity to expand, and the instrument of expression of more than 20 growing nations. Spanish and Spanish-American thought, literature, and production contain a wealth of spiritual values which need to be tapped by the citizens of the United States. It may be emphasized at the same time that the teaching of the Portuguese language is a matter of the greatest importance and urgency. For reasons which are difficult to discover, the Portuguese language has never received adequate attention in this country. Brazil constitutes geographically half of South America and with its 40 million people is one of the most vital nations of the New World. Its language is part and parcel of its cultural heritage. It is high time that in the United States due recognition is given to the importance of the Portuguese language, rich in literature, energetic, expressive, and resourceful in mechanism, and the instrument of thought of a remarkable people. Our schools can well give Spanish an important place in the program of studies, and, when facilities permit, consider the inclusion of Portuguese, a knowledge of which is vitally significant to develop closer contacts with Brazil."

(Concluded on page 300)

¹ From an address before the National Convention of the Daughters of the American Revolution.



Upper left: These girls learn to prepare, to serve, and to enjoy luncheon parties, at the Florida School for the Deaf.

Upper right: Lantern slides in the classroom help to associate words with the objects they represent, at the Iowa School for the Deaf.

Circle: A mechanical aid helps this little girl to use all the hearing she has, at the Lexington School for the Deaf, New York City.

Lower left: The rhythm class is rehearsing a song which will later be "sung" with a choral group, at the Illinois School for the Deaf.

Lower right: Upholstery and furniture repair are vocational activities taught at the New York School for the Deaf, New York City.

Fifth and Last Article in the Series

Residential Schools for Deaf Children

by Elise H. Martens, Specialist in the Education of Exceptional Children

From the point of view of instruction, deafness from birth or infancy presents a more difficult problem than blindness. Unable to hear speech from those around him, the child cannot learn to talk through imitation of sounds as most of us do. He has no way of becoming acquainted with the names of objects or with other language concepts through their association with speech. It is as if a high wall were built about him cutting him off from the world of language, a knowledge of which is so essential to an understanding of his environment and of the people with whom in some way he must learn to communicate. This wall education must scale—or blast—through the application of

special methods which substitute the use of other senses for the hearing of which the child is deprived.

Residential schools for the deaf were established to fulfill this purpose. To the State of Connecticut belongs the credit for the establishment of the first school of this kind in the United States in 1817. The State of New York took similar action the following year, and by 1850, 10 other States had established schools of their own. It is reported by the *American Annals of the Deaf* that in October 1938 there were 66 public and 20 private residential schools in the United States, all of these together enrolling approximately 15,000 pupils. In addition, between 9 and 10 thousand deaf and hard-of-hearing

children were reported to the Office of Education in 1936 as enrolled for special instruction in day schools or classes established in city school systems. However, recent estimates indicate that there are many thousand more children with defective hearing who are struggling along without special help.

Some Similarities in Schools

Like schools for the blind, the programs of which were described in a previous article, residential schools for the deaf are primarily designed for children of school age whose sensory loss is extreme and whose needs cannot be adequately met in the local day school system from which they come. Also like

schools for the blind, however, schools for the deaf find it necessary to admit children with less severe yet serious defects, for whom day school accommodations are not available. Only a comparatively small number of the children in a residential school for the deaf are totally without hearing, and increasing emphasis is being placed upon the stimulation for maximum use of the residual hearing which most of them possess to a greater or less degree.

The administrative policies for publicly supported residential schools for the deaf and for the blind within the same State are likely to be closely related. In fact, in some cases the same school serves both blind and deaf children in separate departments. In cases in which a State-appointed agency is in charge of a separate school for the blind, one finds the same agency controlling the school for the deaf. Of 82 residential schools for the deaf reporting to the Office of Education in 1936, 30 are administered either by the State educational authority or jointly by the State educational authority and another State or private agency.

Superintendents of these institutions are unanimous in their insistence that they should be considered schools in every sense of the word. Repeatedly one hears it emphasized that they are not charitable or eleemosynary institutions. School announcements are likely to contain a statement similar to that which one superintendent used: "The school is purely an educational institution and its one and only purpose of existence is to provide an education for those pupils of school age who are unable to progress satisfactorily in the public school due to total deafness or impaired hearing."

School Progress

It is logical that the course of study in residential schools for the deaf shall follow closely the course offered by elementary and high schools of the State. During the first 2 or 3 years of the child's residence in the school, a great part of his time must be spent in sense training, voice development, the elements of language, and lip reading. Because of the need for this extended preparatory work his progress through the grades cannot be as rapid as that made by the normally hearing child.

This fact has led to the encouragement of a very early entrance age. Most State schools cannot legally admit children until the age of 5, 6, or even 7 years. A few States, however, now permit a child to be enrolled in a State-supported school at the age of 3 years, and some private schools admit even younger children. One private school has had as many as 50 children under instruction at one time ranging in age from 2½ to 6 years. Sense training in these early years is designed to capitalize the use of the child's eyes and fingers, as well as his sense of vibration and muscular control. Voice development and the elements of lip reading are also emphasized

through instruction of an informal type geared to the capacity of the child. Of paramount importance is the pupil's social adjustment, and the nursery school gives the opportunity for play and work with other children conducive to greater adaptability and social consciousness. In general, nursery school attendance serves the purpose of an early preparatory period and thus expedites the beginning of regular first-grade work at a more nearly normal age.

Curriculum Units

Because of the disproportionate amount of time that must be given to the development of skills in language, speech, and lip reading, it is not an easy matter to coordinate the experience and interests of deaf children into a vitalized unit of activity more or less informal in nature. Yet this is being done by teachers who have kept pace with progressive developments in educational method, and they are enthusiastic over the results obtained in the stimulation and enjoyment experienced by the children. Among the units reported are those featuring the story of cotton, with its opportunity for getting acquainted with the land and people of the South; a Congo village, built in miniature and depicting life in hot, wet regions; books as one's friends, with opportunity for each child to make and to bind a book; the dairy, with a visit to the school dairy, a churning experience in school, and a study of dairy products and sanitation; and aviation, with activities planned for slow boys, who, in the course of the unit became acquainted with famous aviators, types of planes, and historical flights. All of these projects afford excellent opportunity for the correlation of work in geography, history, reading, language, and industrial arts.

In one school a preparatory class of little people carried on a home project, which is described by the teacher somewhat as follows: We know that a little deaf child's vocabulary, even after a year in school, is very limited. In carrying out a project on the home we are afforded the opportunity of teaching the names of the rooms in a house, the furniture, and other parts, as well as a few articles used in each room. The children constructed a house of cardboard; painted it red and white to represent bricks; used cellophane for windows; made furniture for each room of construction paper, the curtains and tablecloth of lace, and the rugs of pieces of tapestry. When the house was completed, we wrote a story about it in our "daily news" period and copied it on reading charts. Each child made a book in the shape of a house, wrote the name of a room at the top of each page, cut out furniture and pasted it on the proper page, and properly labeled each piece. Before the project was over, speech, lip reading, language, writing, and handwork were all involved. The children became acquainted with the fundamental facts of home and family life. They learned, too, how to work together and showed a keen interest throughout the activity.

Speech and Lip Reading

There are several ways in which deaf persons may communicate with one another or with hearing people. They may use a standard system of signs known more or less to most other deaf persons; they may use the manual alphabet in finger spelling, which they have learned in school; they may use pencil and paper and write what they have to say; or they may use speech and lip reading. All residential schools for the deaf give their pupils an opportunity to learn to speak and to read lips.

Certain schools use this method of instruction exclusively with all pupils. Some administrators and teachers urge that all schools for the deaf teach speech and lip reading to all pupils all the time. Others, while recognizing the importance of speech and lip reading, believe that many deaf persons are unable to master these accomplishments and that therefore the method used should suit the individual case.

The relative importance of instruction through speech and lip reading, on the one hand, and the manual alphabet, on the other hand, has probably in years past been the greatest cause of disagreement among educators of the deaf. Today the question is no longer whether there shall be any attempt to teach speech in the residential school, but rather how long that attempt shall be made before the lack of success justifies one in discontinuing it in favor of the use of the manual alphabet. To determine whether failure is due to the child's inability to learn to speak or to hitherto imperfect methods of teaching is not an easy matter. It is hoped that continued research will bring to light facts which will help to answer this question to the satisfaction of all concerned.

Auricular Training

If a child is born with a serious hearing impairment, no amount of training will increase the degree of hearing which he possesses. The ability to use what he has, however, may be developed to an extent which is sometimes surprising. For this purpose auricular training has been instituted in schools for the deaf with the aid of mechanical devices. Since a large number of children in residential schools have some residual hearing, such devices can be a most effective instrument for instruction in speech. The child may hear and interpret through the amplifier sounds which are otherwise unintelligible to him. Thus he learns to imitate in his own speech the sound of the teacher's voice. Through the same means the conservation of natural speech is encouraged on the part of hard-of-hearing children or of children who became apparently deaf after they had learned to talk. Some schools are working toward the objective of making mechanical hearing aids available to all the children all the time, in order that no stone may

(Concluded on page 308)

Cincinnati Convention

National Congress of Parents and Teachers

 The National Congress of Parents and Teachers with approximately 2,000 delegates attending and more than 100 speakers participating, considered many phases of Freedom for Growth during its 4-day convention in Cincinnati, May 1-5.

Each day the convention, through speakers, panels, and general discussion, studied the *purposes of education in American democracy*, as set up by the Educational Policies Commission. The first day was devoted to Self-Realization; the second day, to Human Relationships; the third day, to Economic Efficiency; and the closing day to Civic Responsibility.

The program plan consisted of a principal speaker for the morning session each day who presented a keynote address upon the day's theme.

The afternoon session was devoted to a symposium panel with a leader, two or more discussants, and a number of panel members, all of whom further dealt with the day's theme.

Principal Speakers

Among principal speakers on the program were: William G. Carr, secretary, Educational Policies Commission, and director of research, National Education Association of the United States; Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant Commissioner of Education, Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior; Stringfellow Barr, president, St. John's College; Joseph K. Folsom, professor of sociology, Vassar College; Howard Y. McClusky, associate professor of educational psychology, University of Michigan; Edwin A. Lee, head, department of vocational education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor; and Clarence A. Dykstra, president, University of Wisconsin.

Summary Statements

"Command of the fundamental tools of learning, an inquiring mind, desirable healthy habits, and suitable leisure time pursuits are results of the educative process which society desires for every person," is a brief summary statement for the first day's meetings under the theme "Self-Realization."

"Ability of the individual to work and play with others, to enjoy a varied social life both within and outside the home, to appreciate and observe the ideals of family life,"—these were among the second day's considerations.

"The study of how the home and school can cooperate in teaching young people economic efficiency, with emphasis on the earning and spending of an income; information as to the requirements and opportunities in various types of work, knowledge of the satisfaction of good workmanship and of success in a chosen occupation, and understanding of methods of safeguarding the buyers' interests" were points of emphasis during the third convention day.

"The development of respect for differences of opinion, understanding of the processes of a democratic society, regard for proper use of the Nation's resources, and appreciation of the disparities of human circumstances, as well as of methods contributing to the general welfare," were points brought out in the fourth day's deliberations.

New Officers

Installation of the following vice presidents, who were elected, was a part of the closing day's business:

Joseph M. Artman, Chicago, second vice president; Mrs. S. C. Cox, Virginia, vice president from Region II; Mrs. L. G. Hughes, Indiana, vice president from Region IV; Mrs. M. A. Taylor, Texas, vice president from Region VI. The president, Mrs. J. K. Pettingill, Detroit, has another year to serve on a three year term. The first vice president, Mrs. John E. Hayes, Twin Falls, Idaho, also holds over another year.

Civic Responsibility

The following objectives of education for civic responsibility were presented by Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor:

1. Intellectual appreciation of what democracy means and emotional awareness of kinship between the social aims of democracy and the personal aims of self-realization and satisfying human relationships.
2. Awareness of democracy as a process of growth rather than an achieved condition of social living, and personal commitment to participation in this process.
3. Understanding of the relationship of community and individual activities in the attainment of democratic goals.
4. Understanding of the term "community" as embracing the entire Nation.
5. Realization that public service is a public trust and must be performed with both honesty and competence, under far-seeing leadership.

Self-Realization

Presenting the theme, Self-Realization as

One of the Purposes of Education, the Assistant Commissioner of Education, Bess Goodykoontz, emphasized that "much still needs to be done before we can claim that most American communities are fit places for children to live." Dr. Goodykoontz spoke of "the tools of learning"; health knowledge and health habits; recreational and leisure time interests; and character. She pointed out to the National Congress delegates that:

"Our big responsibility in schools and at home is to plan together as well as possible to avoid conflicts in standards for children, to be as uncritical of each other as possible, to be ready to explain or to modify our own standards, and as dispassionately as possible, to realize that the code or standard by which each child will direct his life is the one he makes for himself. It should be as sound and as true as possible, and well illustrated with examples of the actions of parents and teachers and friends he trusts."

Dr. Goodykoontz concluded with this brief summary: "To realize one's best self, a person needs to know how to use the tools with which he can keep on learning; he needs to know how to keep well; he needs long-time interests that make him more interesting and more useful; he needs a set of standards by which to steer his course. Schools and homes together face a heavy assignment in providing education equal to such requirements."

Devotion to Democracy

President C. A. Dykstra, of the University of Wisconsin, gave the convention's closing address, using as his subject, Devotion to Democracy. In part, President Dykstra said:

"The question we face is whether it is possible today by democratic devising to reproduce in some way the economic integration which characterized our early days and made possible the idea of a developing democracy. Our Nation finds itself split into groups which are at war with each other on political, social, and economic fronts. Can we recreate some visible unity which will pervade our pluralistic structure and give its parts the consciousness of cohesion, of belonging together in spite of differences? The task of democratic statesmanship is not to utter hollow sermons on morality, but to offer concrete institutional goals that will confirm the righteous claims of the people and challenge their capabilities and their devotion to a common cause."

"We must remember that there is no more guarantee in any other system than in the democratic way. Exploitation rears its head everywhere under all systems. There is no safety in life—it is always in danger and always dangerous. Nor is liberty automatic

Every system of life has to be on the watch. Democracy must prevent a dangerous growth of individual power whether political, social, or economic. It uses various devices to do this—elections and regulation, for instance, and taxation. It may even prohibit the investment of excessive wealth through the inheritance duties. It must prevent the abuse of political or administrative power whenever functions are socialized. Democracy must forever tackle the present; it cannot hope to promise the solution of future problems in advance. To operate and preserve a system of liberty in a changing world depends in some part on good luck and in large degree on the courage and capacity for liberty of the people and its leaders. Democracy after all is not anarchy but a form of government and a way of life. 'It is needless to invoke justice and peace unless we attempt to implant them in a world through coherent and working institutions.'

* * * * *

"The fathers quite evidently were concerned with the preparation of the people for self-government. They feared that paper guarantees of freedom were not enough. Washington wrote in his farewell address 'In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the diffusion of knowledge. Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness. In one in which the measures of government receive their impressions so immediately from the sense of the community as ours it is proportionately essential. To the security of a free constitution it contributes in various ways.' To Jefferson the schoolhouse was the fountain head of happiness, prosperity, and good government and education was 'a holy cause.' Although the founders did not live to see their ideals of education carried out their thought and purpose are clear.

"When public schools and universities were finally established several generations later, however, Americans were thinking in local rather than in national terms, and of an immediately useful and a somewhat private kind of education. Stress was laid upon individual rights and individual liberty; the sense of national responsibility did not weigh heavily upon those who sought their fortunes in the wilderness. No national educational leader or system appeared. The great leaders of American enterprise did not turn their attention to education until the day of great private endowments appeared on the horizon. Education was entrusted to local inspiration, leadership, and control.

* * * * *

"Today, in spite of its origins in State and local enterprise and its early reaction against the cultural outlook of the founders, public education is once more concerned with the national economy and interest and with those ideals of national unity of thought and pur-

pose which are Nation-wide in their reach. The struggle between centralism and particularism, between collective and private interest will never end but education has a certain responsibility for keeping the conflict within the domain of exact knowledge, good will, and the democratic process and of contributing to the formulation of wise public policy.

"In some sense, then, American education faces a very real decision. It cannot help but recognize how widespread is the teaching throughout the world which by precept and implication throws overboard the whole theory and method of democracy. It must see that the values, which we have taught in America for generations, no longer produce a proper understanding of the world as we find it. We keep putting new wine into old bottles instead of getting a new orientation. The dictators are not making this mistake. They are cultivating a common interest and a new goal. They are teaching the doctrine that to save one's life one must lose it in devotion to a common social ideal.

"Not long since a profound student of this country who was born in Europe but has lived here for more than 30 years gave it as his opinion 'that Americans do not think of the United States in the way that other peoples think of their homeland. They know little about it, feel little responsibility for it, and have no vital selfless interest in it. They are not conscious of their citizenship nor do they feel the urge for participation in their common concerns. Their educational system does little to instill any of these necessary national participating qualities.' Such a pronouncement may be overdrawn but it was made in all good faith and in great seriousness by a naturalized citizen who loves his adopted land. If such a charge is true in any degree, it is time to take counsel together. True, war would change this indifference for a time but only temporarily. Our sense of common purpose and common sacrifice must be a lasting and constant active sentiment which does not waver. Only a conscious educational program can effect such a result.

"Such a program calls first of all for an understanding of democracy as a way of life and a nourishing of the underlying values upon which society depends for its existence. Second, it requires that we live in the present as well as in the past and that we face the future. We cannot plan for the past or act in it. Our education must be concerned with coming generations as well as with the present. It must take account of advancing knowledge; it cannot fall under the dead hand. In the words of the Educational Policies Commission, 'Education involves the dissemination of knowledge, the liberation of minds, the development of skills, the promotion of free inquiries, the encouragement of the creative and inventive spirit, and all the establishment of wholesome attitudes toward order and change—all useful in the good life for each person' and necessary to an American society in the world of nations.

"The challenge America faces today in a world of warring philosophies is clear-cut—can we make the democratic idea and process work in such a way that we can achieve security in a social organization which will maintain freedom? Do we have to kill one to get the other? Education must face this issue or lose its liberty and its opportunity.

"Most of us today are anti-Fascist and conversely we are the defenders of the democratic way. Everywhere lip service is given to the American dream. This is not enough—to hate despotism is not to guarantee freedom—to be anti-Fascist is not equivalent to being pro-democratic. Democracy needs an offense as well as a defense if it is to score a victory. Such an offense will apply the meaning and implication of democracy to the time in which we live—and then act. Only a dynamic democracy can cope with a fact facing fascism. Only a whole people accepting responsibility for action can meet on even terms a totalitarian mechanism which uses all the instruments of power to bring a nation to the realization of a cooperative goal. Our best defense for democracy in a world hurtling toward totalitarianism is a sound offense which attacks the conditions which give rise to such a solution. In a moment of emergency the local defenders of our peace and order through the police radio hear the broadcast 'calling all cars—calling all cars.' This is such a moment in world history—a time of danger to the democratic way. Everywhere throughout the length and breadth of this great land we need to hear a strong signal sending out a message in thundering tones 'calling all Americans—calling all Americans.' Our devotion to democracy must produce a dynamic democracy. * * * *

Congress to Move

The 1940 convention of the National Congress will be held at Omaha, Nebr., according to action taken by the executive committee.

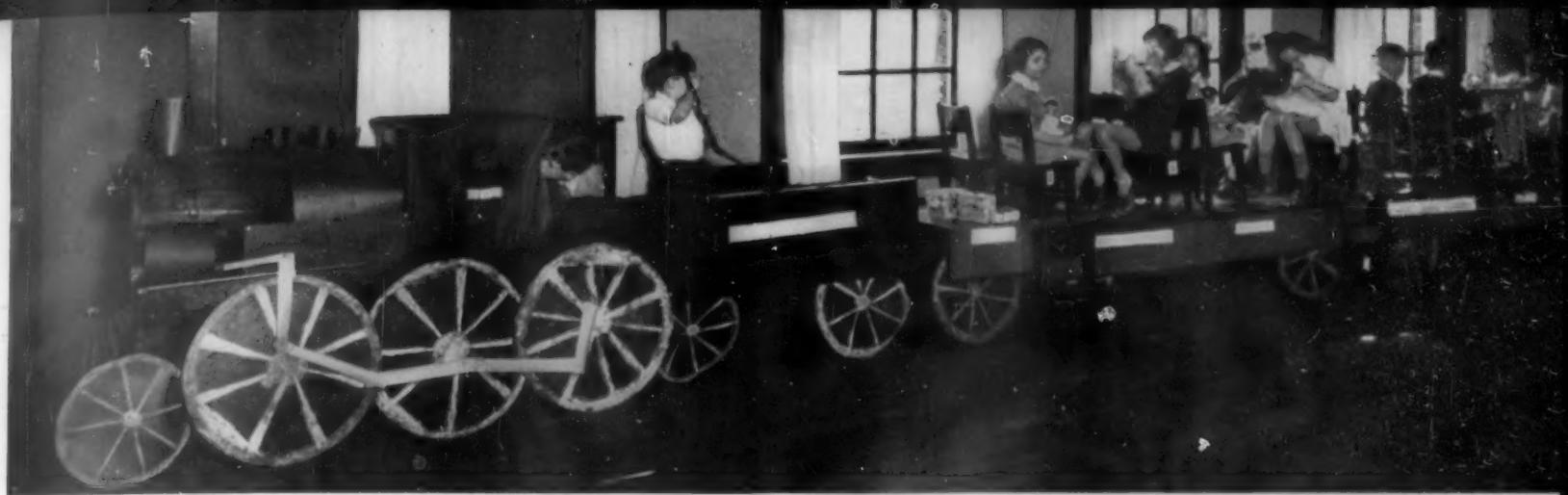
Offices of the National Congress are being moved from Washington, D. C. to Chicago, following action taken at the convention and plans that had been under way for some time in the board for such a transfer.

OLGA A. JONES



Syllabus Available

A syllabus on Curriculum Construction for the Handicapped, prepared at Teachers College, Columbia University, in connection with courses on the education of the handicapped, is available, according to announcement (10 cents to cover postage), from the author, Clarence R. Athearn, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. The syllabus is in mimeographed form, and includes 150 pages.



Excursions to the train yard and to the railroad station were a part of this group work in transportation.

The Primary Unit—An Aid to Children's Progress

by Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education

★★★ "Failed-to-pass" and "repeat-the-grade" have climaxed the first school year of approximately one of every four first-grade children in the conventional school. Based chiefly upon the generally accepted idea that all first graders must master the skill of reading, the promotion barrier has caused many young children to start their school life with a sense of defeat that is difficult to erase later on. Many steps have been taken to adjust the school requirements, the teaching methods, and the grouping of children to current knowledge of how children best grow and develop. Successful experiments with the *primary unit* and *primary school* are apparently providing a setting in which beginning school experiences can be adjusted to remove failure. "Grade" and "promotion" barriers are removed, children are placed in classes with others of like interests and age, well prepared teachers build the school program to fit the individual and class needs and successful progress is assured for each child at his own rate of learning. The primary unit is a practical application of the philosophy underlying the modern school which maintains that the schools must begin with children as they are, and must provide an environment favorable to their growth and development.

Current interest in the primary unit centers upon the way school officials develop the organization, how it operates and how successful it is proving to be. The following brief descriptions, based upon school visits and reports may be amplified from the publications listed. Many of the most significant steps in the development of primary units, however, are described as memoranda, outlines, and record forms which indicate the concentrated effort of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents to study children and give them a fair start in their school life.

The school systems that will be mentioned are by no means all of those either conducting their primary school on the unit basis or tending in that direction. Many are experimenting with one detail or another of the program. No one suggests that a final plan has been achieved, or that there is any one approach to needed adjustments in the school organization that would fit all school systems. Such uniformity is neither desirable nor possible. With the teachers and schools, as with the children, adjustments must begin where they are and with their individual interests and problems.

Preliminary Steps

Many and varied studies and experiments have preceded the elimination of grade lines and promotions in school systems developing the primary unit. Among steps taken in approaching the general organization have been surveys of first-grade failures, adjustments in promotion standards, changes in regulations controlling school entrance, a change from semiannual to annual promotions, postponement of formal instruction in school subjects, emphasis upon behavior development and individual development in teaching method and in the construction of new report cards, the assignment of teachers for a period of 2 or 3 years to the same group of children, efforts to harmonize kindergarten and first-grade teaching methods, the organization of preprimary classes for slow-learning 6-year-olds, and the withdrawing of primary grades from a platoon organization. The following reports illustrate some of these approaches.

During the early years of the depression a special study was made in Minneapolis of the rate of first-grade failure. Serious difficulty for many children was apparent by a percent-

age of 15.8 first-grade failure compared to a 5.1 percent of failure for all elementary grades and a range in first-grade failure among school buildings that went as high as 32.6 percent. On the basis of a study conducted by the curriculum department of pupils who failed in first grade, certain recommendations were made to help eliminate at least part of such failure. The principals and teachers of eight elementary schools formed into an experimental group to try out some of the recommendations. They made an attempt to substitute standards of all-round child growth for the single standard of skill in reading as the basis of promotion. They investigated the possibility of some form of cumulative records. They made adjustments in the reading program of the 1-B grade. They studied the feasibility of print-script writing in relation to reading. They summarized their findings on such points as a plan of organization, equipment and materials, a testing program and a plan for reporting pupil progress.

With the revision of the curriculum in Rochester about 6 years ago, the teachers and principals felt a need for improved promotional practices. Neither semiannual nor annual promotion plans had proved satisfactory in attaining the objective of continuous progress for the pupils. There had been, however, successful experience at the primary level with a pre-primary transition class between kindergarten and first grade and also with the assignment of teachers for 2 years with the same group of primary children. This experience suggested a grade unit plan for promotion. The plan fitted well with the organization of the curriculum into series of "centers of interest" at all age levels and four promotional units were set up—kindergarten through grade 3, grade 4 through 6, grade 7 through 9, and the 10th through the 12th grade. Cumulative record cards were developed to record



Individual interests in books and individual records of progress help develop reading skill.

basic and continuing personal histories for each child and to report pupil progress in the curriculum "centers of interest." Adjustments were also made in the periodic reports of children's progress to parents.

In *Pittsburgh Schools* for the fall of 1935 the following announcement was given:

"Nine elementary schools in Pittsburgh are enrolling between eight and nine hundred kindergarten and primary grade children in 'activity centers' to provide better articulation between the kindergarten and first grade. The transfer from the atmosphere of freedom in the kindergarten to the strain and stress of a platoon school seemed too sudden and severe. Changes in teaching personnel, in equipment, in curriculum and teaching method have been made gradually to adapt the program to the children's needs. The Child Guidance Clinic has determined the children's reading readiness so that the approach to reading may be adapted to the children's abilities. The goal anticipated by teachers and principals is that at the end of 2 years the children will be as far along in the usual skills and, in addition, will have other highly desirable qualities usually undeveloped such as independence of thought, experience in problem solving, social ability to get along with other children and in new and untried situations."

Practices Vary

Using the previous reports as an indication of the background, experiences, and interests with which schools approach administrative reorganization, one is prepared for the variety

of adjustments of the reorganization to local conditions. Again recognizing that successful changes depend upon the interest and conviction of those upon whom the immediate responsibility rests, it seems natural to find variations in the development of the program among schools in the same system. With the exception of the smaller school systems, the organization of the primary unit usually starts in but a few buildings. About a fourth of the Minneapolis schools are now working on that basis.

Grades included in the unit are usually kindergarten through grade 3, though kindergarten and grade 1 or grades 1 and 2, constitute the unit in some schools. Where there is no kindergarten, the grades complete the group. There seems to be a tendency to wish that all children could begin their school experience at the 5-year level giving them the advantage of that period of adjustment in the primary unit.

To avoid the implication of promotion which is connected with the word "grade", the terms "school year", "class", and "group" are used, for example—"first year of school", "second class", and "first-year group." For purposes of statistical reporting, however, several school officials state that the word "grade" is used. This is both a matter of current, local convenience and of providing information comparable with other school systems. Enrollments for these "grades" are based largely upon the number of years the children have been in school.

The grouping of children seems to be chiefly

on the basis of social maturity or of chronological age. "Social Maturity" in the Los Angeles program is defined as "children who are like-minded, have common interests, have reached about the same degree of maturity as regards social habits and are likely to live together happily and successfully." Being homogeneous in social maturity does not, however, mean that the group will be homogeneous in chronological age or in intelligence. A chronological age-range of 3 years and a range in I. Q.'s from 75 to 110 and over are granted as possible in the Los Angeles program and defended as resembling an average group in adult life. The teacher then assumes responsibility for finding out all she can about each child by test and observation and for teaching at all levels, depending upon the needs of the children in her group. Children who seem to be misfits may be moved from one group to another if the new assignment puts them in a more congenial atmosphere for growth.

Children who enter at 5 years of age in the kindergarten are generally expected to remain 4 years in the primary unit while those who enter at 6 will spend but 3 years. But in one school system provision is made for a maximum of 1 year of acceleration and 2 years of slow progress.

Practice varies again in the length of time teachers remain with their groups of children. In some school systems they spend but 1 year with a class, in other schools they remain 2 years with the same group, and in still another school system the teachers and children are together during the 4 years of the unit with such changes in the enrollment as naturally occur.

Some of the Values

The major emphasis of all proponents of the primary unit is directed toward the teacher's study of individual children. Such study, followed with adjustments for each child during his earliest years, should help to avoid later problems and build in children an active expectancy of happy, normal growth and advancement. In Glencoe the study of each child brings the parent immediately into the program through conferences. Reports, which are a constant challenge to the teachers' professional growth, include a report on the personality and behavior of each child which is a yearly addition to the cumulative record, reports of advancement in school subjects and activities, reports of physical condition and of objective tests of intelligence, school readiness, and achievements. First-grade failures have been abolished as undesirable from a mental health standpoint. Nonreaders, whose difficulties seem to be due to factors other than those of maturation, are given special remedial assistance as they continue in the primary division.

In refuting the criticism that a "no-failure school" is one where you promote everybody and the children don't have to learn anything,

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Whither the Rural School?

by Katherine M. Cook, Chief, Division of Special Problems

★★★ Straws in the wind which seem to be of current moment indicate increased interest in the education of a much neglected half of the children of the United States, namely, those living and going to school in rural or sparsely settled communities. The yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators for 1939 was devoted to a consideration of problems and progress in the field of rural and village education. The International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, devoted its yearbook for 1938 to a discussion of Rural Education and Rural Society in the United States and in most of the countries of the world. Last, but perhaps most important to the children concerned, at least two-thirds of the States are, or have been during recent years, showing definite indications of activity of one type or another—all in the direction of improving the educational facilities available in these areas.

Steadily and consistently over a long period of years the population of the United States has been moving from rural into urban areas. Desirable, even essential, as the reasons for this migration generally are, the result is that rural areas as a whole have thereby become bereft of their original resources including those which are to be measured not economically only but also, and most significantly, in terms of human ability. At the same time rural areas must shoulder an undiminished, generally an increased, burden of taxation, if even minimum public services are to be maintained. In other words, the resources of the country are constantly drawn upon to replenish those in the cities while compensation toward the upkeep of services is either entirely wanting or, as in certain States which aim to preserve equitability of social services—inadequate.

Among these services public education ranks high in importance as well as in cost. Indeed, lack of adequate educational facilities may be classed as among the causes as well as the results of migration from country to city areas. Much has been said and written about the economic urge which has sent country boys and girls cityward; much about the "lure of the bright lights" involving cultural and recreational facilities as well as the less substantial attractions. If it were possible to estimate the loss to the countryside involved, in the quality as well as the number and potential economic contribution of the people who have left it to seek better educational opportunities for their children, it might well be that education, like Abou ben Adhem's name, leads all the rest. It is certain that in addition to

the economic loss involved in the migration from farm to city the loss in educational leadership, a quality much needed in the country, is a significant one. It may well account for the apparent inertia of a part of the rural population in educational progress.

Underprivileged Educationally

At any rate there remains this large proportion of our school population—impressive in numbers as in potential resources—admittedly underprivileged educationally. Not much need be said here about the conditions that influenced, throughout the years, intelligent, far-seeing parents to seek elsewhere the educational advantages not available to their children in the country, even to the point of breaking home and family ties. The story is familiar to observers as well as students of educational conditions.

Only last month, in *SCHOOL LIFE*, there is a clue to one of the most significant reasons for inferior schools in the country. It shows graphically how but 38 percent of the teachers of one- and two-teacher schools in the open country have 2 or more years of college education—the generally accepted minimum for reasonably qualified teachers, while 91 percent of the teachers in the large cities are as well or better qualified (data for 1936). The old adage—as the teacher so is the school—still holds good, but more particularly in the small schools, as the world knows. Logic would dictate that higher qualified rather than under qualified teachers were desirable if similar results are sought. Yet this lack of qualified teachers with its almost inevitable sequence of lower standards in instruction is still the crux of the rural school situation. Constructive progress toward the improvement of schools in rural communities then may be expected to have as its ultimate objective the improvement of instruction. Otherwise it would be beside the point.

Reorganization Important

It would be difficult to characterize any one of the progressive movements in rural education now under way as the "most important." Education in the United States is organized in 48 different State systems each designed to meet different conditions, resources, ideals, and traditions. The degree of importance of any procedure depends on the situation in which it operates. It is, however, safe to say that among the most significant movements toward improvement of school

conditions in rural areas in the United States and one fundamental in the majority of States, is that toward long time, State-wide planning for reorganization of school administrative units, usually accompanied or preceded by transfer of a substantial proportion of school support from local to State sources. The goal of this movement is State-wide, i. e., including all areas and children within a State, rather than local-district-wide provision for financing a complete or "standard" school program. Such a program would provide for professional administration and supervision; for an enriched curricular program including adaptation to the environment and experiences of the children concerned; for adequate facilities in buildings and equipment; and other essentials.

During the past 5 years State-wide surveys have been made in a number of States. Ten such surveys have been made as cooperative projects of the Office of Education and State departments of education, with a view to studying existing educational conditions within the respective States to determine the possibilities for the organization of satisfactory schools and local school units—including both administrative and attendance areas. The plans contemplate for each State school systems of adequate size and population to offer equitable educational facilities to all of the children as well as equitable distribution of the financial burden involved in their support. They involve a pooling of effort—the principle underlying public support of schools—on a State-wide and areas-wide rather than district-wide scale. The consummation of the plans resulting from these studies is of course for full realization in the future. However, progress toward it is underway.

Interpreted liberally it may be considered an extension of the consolidation or centralization movement in which some progress has been made in every State—notable progress in many—to reach a larger number of children, additional areas, and to finance and administer the schools on a more democratic basis. The practice prevailing in most States of combining adjacent districts on majority vote of the people concerned, while democratic in conception, has not proved democratic in actual practice. Rather it has resulted in the formation of favored districts here and there, favored in taxable wealth and in a population with progressive ideals in education. Hundreds of children living in regions outside the borders of these centralizations, often on the very periphery of the newly formed districts, were even worse off

after than before separation from the larger and more prosperous area.

Moreover, there has been a very natural tendency, often necessary for success, to confine the proposed centralizations to those districts able to afford more commodious and better equipped buildings, an end too often confused with the more substantial objective of improved instruction. Hence the means rather than the end was occasionally satisfactory. That mistakes have been made in the name of school consolidation, now of course widely recognized, does not detract materially from the substantial gain in educational progress which has resulted from it. It has facilitated improved elementary educational facilities for literally millions of children and has brought high schools within accessible distance to thousands formerly without such advantages.

The dramatic progress of the centralization movement during the past 20 years has come from several causes. The country life movement under the leadership of Theodore Roosevelt, during his presidency, added emphasis to the growing realization of the need for enriching country life, including education, under changing social conditions, a movement still under way. The rapidly increasing enrollment in secondary schools throughout the country, though lagging in rural as compared with urban areas, had a marked effect. The net result has been a reduction in one-teacher schools during the period of approximately 70,000, and an increase in centralized or consolidated schools from 5,000 to 17,500. These figures do not, of course, tell the whole story of school centralization. Children in large numbers are attending schools in districts other than those in which they reside and to which they are transported at public expense. In these as well as in centralized schools facilities superior to those offered in the home districts are provided. The total number of children transported to school in 1936 as reported to the Office of Education was 3½ million. No doubt it had reached at least 4 million in 1938.

Improving Instruction

Estimates made in the Office of Education indicate that at least as many children, namely, 4 million, are enrolled in one- and two-teacher open country schools. It is evident then, from the point of view of numbers alone, that not the least important of the several movements directed toward better schools in rural communities is that concerned directly with improving instruction, applicable, of course, to the small as well as the larger schools. Curriculum development programs, usually under State leadership and State-wide in effect and State and local plans for professional supervision are significant activities for achieving this goal. Education, if it is to have meaning for children, must be adapted to their experiences in the environment in which they live and attend school. One serious failure in education in the past in the small rural school especially, but often also

in the larger school, has been the following of curricula, courses, methods, materials of instruction, and standards intended for and appropriate to urban schools, usually widely different in organization and facilities as well as environment. In some instances examinations, particularly those required at the close of the elementary school, were given by central authorities and were powerful incentives to teachers to follow procedures modeled after, if not the same as approved urban courses.

"If the principle is sound that the task of modern education is to adapt instruction to the abilities and capacities of pupils, to build on the environment, the content of rural education must be taken from and adapted to the rural environment,"¹ according to a recent statement of Dr. Kandel. As the author explains this does not involve a policy of restricting the experiences of pupils to a narrow environment but rather a translation of the language of the school's activities into one that has meaning to the learner. Enrichment of school programs, their adaptation to the abilities and experiences of children, are essentials of an equitable educational opportunity for all children, whatever the community in which they live. The achievement of these essentials under the different and more difficult situations to be met in small and often inadequately staffed rural schools has long been a serious obstacle to efficient instruction.

Professional Supervision

Professional supervision is generally considered an effective aid in achieving the objectives referred to above. In a number of States—New Jersey, Maryland, California, Virginia, for example—county supervisors, generally with State leadership and cooperation, are achieving efficient results in improving the content and method of instruction. Local district superintendents, supervisors, and principals achieve similar results under the administrative organization prevailing in other States, New York, for example. Curriculum enrichment in health, guidance, the social studies, the vocations, school and community projects, and the like; group organization plans adapted to the small school, primary and intermediate units, e. g., among other progressive movements, are reaching rural communities through professional supervision.

Here, then, are a few of the signs which seem to indicate more fundamental, remedial rather than palliative, procedures approaching greater equitability in educational facilities for children in rural areas, a consummation devoutly to be wished. The ultimate objective is nothing newer than the well known one of Dr. Dewey that we provide for all children—rural and urban understood—what the best and wisest parent wants for his children.

¹ Educational Yearbook, 1938, International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. I. L. Kandel, ed.

Cultural Ties

(Concluded from page 292)

Circulation of Literature

The circulation of books, journals, and reviews of the United States in the other American republics is distressingly limited and the same may be said regarding the circulation of their production in our country. We simply do not know each other's literature. In this situation is revealed a project of large possibilities, for it is a realizable undertaking to translate and disseminate widely in inexpensive editions the best histories, biographies, scientific publications, and other literature of our respective countries.

The rapid growth in the United States of movements for health conservation, child welfare, and social improvement are paralleled in our neighboring countries. Inter-American cooperation in these areas already has accomplished much, but much remains to be done.

Educational and informative films, transcending as they do the barrier of language, constitute a uniquely effective medium for cultural exchange.

Art and music offer broad opportunities for effective cooperation. The art of the United States is known only too little outside this country, while the artistic productions of the other American nations reach people of the United States to a limited extent. In some of the other American republics significant achievements in art are being realized and with these countries suitable exchange exhibits should be carried out. American music, other than popular dance music, has received little general hearing. Concerts and other forms of musical expression, as well as visits by individual artists, would contribute considerably to a diffusion of the knowledge of the culture of this country. The whole field of radio broadcasting offers almost unlimited possibilities for the increase of international understanding through effective cultural relations.

Special Institutes

In some of the capitals of the American Republics special institutes exist for intellectual cooperation with the United States; notably, in Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Santiago, and Lima. There is a dearth of such institutions both in the south and here in the United States in contrast with the relatively large number of institutions which exist for the promotion of cultural relations with Europe. It is important that cooperation and encouragement be extended to these organizations and new ones created to the end that close cultural contacts may be maintained.

The first 50 years of the Pan American Union will be celebrated in 1940, which year also will be the fourth centenary of the explorations of Francisco Vázquez de Coronado in what is now the Southwestern portion of the

United States. These two occasions offer splendid opportunities to quicken in every community in the United States a livelier interest in Inter-American relations and to highly multiply the programs of cultural and intellectual interchange between ourselves and our neighbors to the South.

Rediscovering History

One project which needs to be undertaken immediately might be designated as the rediscovery of our history. All too frequently we have described our cultural evolution as though it had had no relation to that of the other American Republics. Delegates from those countries at Lima indicated that the same practice prevails with them. It is interesting to reflect that every school child in every American republic starts his history studies with the discovery of America by Columbus and the explorations that followed, but for him from that point the stream of history divides into separate nationalistic tributaries, each taking its own independent direction uninfluenced by the others. It might be added that the history of each nationalistic tributary is not infrequently so taught as to indicate that the main portion of the original cultural stream flows through it.

As a matter of fact, there was a marked divergence between the developing civilizations of our several countries, but the separation never was as complete as some of our histories have suggested. The American Revolution, for example, strongly influenced the thinking and later action of the countries to the south, and their revolutions in turn greatly influenced our development. Again and again our cultural streams have interpenetrated and in recent years with improved communications they have been steadily converging. There is need for new textbooks and new popular histories which adequately describe the inter-relations of our developing cultures and the enriching contribution each has made to the others.

Many other ways of cooperation might be discussed, but these will suffice to illustrate the practical character of cultural relations.

Our Government is performing its part in furthering the good-neighbor policy, but the good neighbor policy can never be carried to completion by Government action alone; it remains for the people to play their part. And the first obvious thing for persons to do who wish to be good neighbors is to make themselves known. It is evident, therefore, that the program of cultural relations is to be a people's movement: A movement in which the citizens of the United States in collaboration with their neighbors will have the high privilege and satisfaction of building a peaceful, cooperative, and friendly inter-American world.

American Education Week 1939

General Theme

Education for the American Way of Life

Daily Topics

Sunday, November 5 . . .	The Place of Religion in Our Democracy
Monday, November 6 . . .	Education for Self-Realization
Tuesday, November 7 . . .	Education for Human Relationships
Wednesday, November 8 . . .	Education for Economic Efficiency
Thursday, November 9 . . .	Education for Civic Responsibility
Friday, November 10 . . .	Cultivating the Love of Learning
Saturday, November 11 . . .	Education for Freedom



A Clear Responsibility— But How?



Education is not the exclusive business of school teachers nor is health teaching confined to the schools, but by all rights of tradition and experience, and through the advantage of organization, the function of health education of children of school age belongs to the schools, public or private. The report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association makes this plain, if it was not already understood. After listing the various services included in the education of the school child concerning health it says:

"It is axiomatic that every school system should carry on a program of health instruction . . . it is clearly a responsibility of the board of education and its professional staff.

"Daily health inspection of each child by the teacher or nurse is clearly a school responsibility.

"The provision of medical and dental examinations at regular intervals of the school career of each child constitutes a definite responsibility of school authorities."

So much for the agency which should conduct health-education activities in schools. And now for the actual doing of this piece of work.

It so happens that, in 1939, the plans for health education in schools have been admirably worked out by the Educational Policies Commission, by a committee of the American Public Health Association, and by a committee of State Directors of Health and

Physical Education. The shaping of the mechanism is complete.

It also happens that the special training for engineers of the machinery involved has been admirably planned by representatives of the American School Health Association, the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

However, these indispensable directors and teachers of teachers are not being prepared for the very good (or bad) reason that schools cannot employ them. Likewise, the approved plans for improving the health of the school child, education's first objective, are not put into effect because the schools cannot afford to put them into effect.

It's high time "the fire began to burn the stick, the stick began to whip the pig, and the pig began to go," but the pig hardly stirs. It is true that funds for health work and even school health work are forthcoming for departments of health, State and local, but as yet only four State departments of education have been able to employ full-time specialists in health education, while the inadequacy of local funds for school purposes of any kind in many States renders the health-instruction program inadequate. It is to be hoped that not only will the inequality of opportunity for education in the States be equalized but that adequate funds for school health work will soon be available to State and local departments of education.

JAMES FREDERICK ROGERS, M. D.



New Government Aids FOR TEACHERS



by MARGARET F. RYAN

FREE PUBLICATIONS: Order free publications and other free aids listed from agencies issuing them
COST PUBLICATIONS: Request only cost publications from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.
enclosing remittance (check or money order) at time of ordering
(The free supply is usually too limited to permit of furnishing copies for all members of classes or other groups)

● Circulars of information on the history, geography, geology, flora and fauna, accommodations, etc., of the following national parks have been revised: Crater Lake—Oregon; Grand Teton—Wyoming; Hawaii; Lassen and Sequoia—California; and Mount Rainier—Washington (see illustration). Free copies of these circulars may be had by writing to the National Park Service.

● David Cushman Coyle is writing a series of pamphlets for the National Youth Administration designed to present reliable, non-technical information on social problems of general interest. The first two pamphlets in the series—*Depression Pioneers* and *Rural Youth* are off the press and are available free from NYA headquarters in Washington.

● Selected characteristics of hospital facilities in 1936, including those of general and special hospitals, hospital departments of institutions, mental hospitals, and tuberculosis hospitals, and trends in hospital development, 1928-36, are presented in United States Public Health Bulletin No. 243, *Hospital Facilities in the United States*. 10 cents.

● The official map of the United States, revised by the General Land Office every 2 years by order of Congress, is available from the Superintendent of Documents at \$2. Mounted on cloth, the map measures 5 by 7 feet, and shows cities and towns, rivers and railroads, national parks and other Federal reservations, and the development of land in the United States during the past 150 years.

● Canada is the second best customer for United States products and is by far our leading source of imports, according to a recent study of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, *Trading Under the Laws of Canada*, Trade Promotion Series No. 176. 20 cents. Although the common law of England is the foundation of the jurisprudence in both the Dominions and Provincial spheres, except in Quebec, which derived its legal system from the French codes, many variations have developed, as in the United States, in consequence of legislative enactments adjusting the commercial laws to local and modern conditions.

● The Superintendent of Documents has revised the following price lists of Government

publications: Alaska and Hawaii, No. 60; Immigration—Naturalization, citizenship, aliens, races, No. 67; Plants—Culture of fruits, vegetables, grain, grasses, and cereals, No. 44; Roads, No. 45; Standards of Weight and Measure—Tests of metals, cement and concrete, iron, electricity, clays, photography, No. 64; Weather, Astronomy, and Meteorology, No. 48. Free.

● From many and varied sources the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce gathers information on new research projects in the field of marketing, prints the gist of statements by leaders in Government and in industry, reviews new business books and significant magazine articles, and lists new studies and statistical surveys on the 10th, 20th, and 30th of each month in *Domestic Commerce*. Subscription rate: 36 issues and semiannual index \$1 a year (foreign \$2) in advance. Special rates for multiple subscriptions for schools and business organizations are available on request. Remittances for subscriptions should be made payable to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

● From one-fifth to one-third or more of all farm families in most sections of the Great Plains have been forced to apply for relief in recent years. *Farming Hazards in the Drought Area*, Research Monograph XVI of the Division of Social Research, Works Progress Administration, presents a detailed analysis of the agricultural situation in 13 widely separated counties in the Great Plains drought area and is based on an intensive analysis of the farm operations of a selected group of almost 1,000 farmers. An analysis was made of the rural rehabilitation problems of the areas studied in terms of specific local conditions, and suggestions were formulated for a long time program of agricultural adjustment. Free copies are available from WPA headquarters, Washington.

● The great majority of all accidents that occur in industry are preventable. *Industrial Injuries to Women and Men, 1932 to 1934*, Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 160, 10 cents, presents data from 19 States on injuries, on injured persons, industries in which the injury occurred, cause of injury, and wages and compensation.



Courtesy of the National Park Service
Horseback party, Mount Rainier
National Park.

Curriculum of the CCC

by Howard W. Oxley, Director of CCC Camp Education

★★★ "The educational activities to be organized in a given camp should be based upon the interests and the problems of the men." This statement of the basic philosophy of education in the camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps was made in the handbook for CCC education published in 1934. Throughout the past 5 years, this thought has actuated camp advisers and others in their building up of a program of training in the camps.

Step by step, a guidance procedure has been organized in the camps, the function of which is to seek out, interpret, and validate the interests and problems of the enrollees. Only upon such a basis can a valid curriculum be constructed, which is in keeping with the basic philosophy that needs and interests shall dictate the content of the program.

The needs and interests of enrollees in the corps fall roughly into two general groups:

1. Present interests and problems.

(a) Problems of an individual and personal character, the solutions of which are important to the individual's future.

(b) Individual interests and needs for educational work.

(c) Problems in the camp for which there is a cooperative responsibility on the part of the enrollees with the supervisory personnel for living and working in the camp.

2. Plans for reconnecting themselves with normal life outside. These relate to:

(a) Vocational interests.

(b) Opportunities for employment.

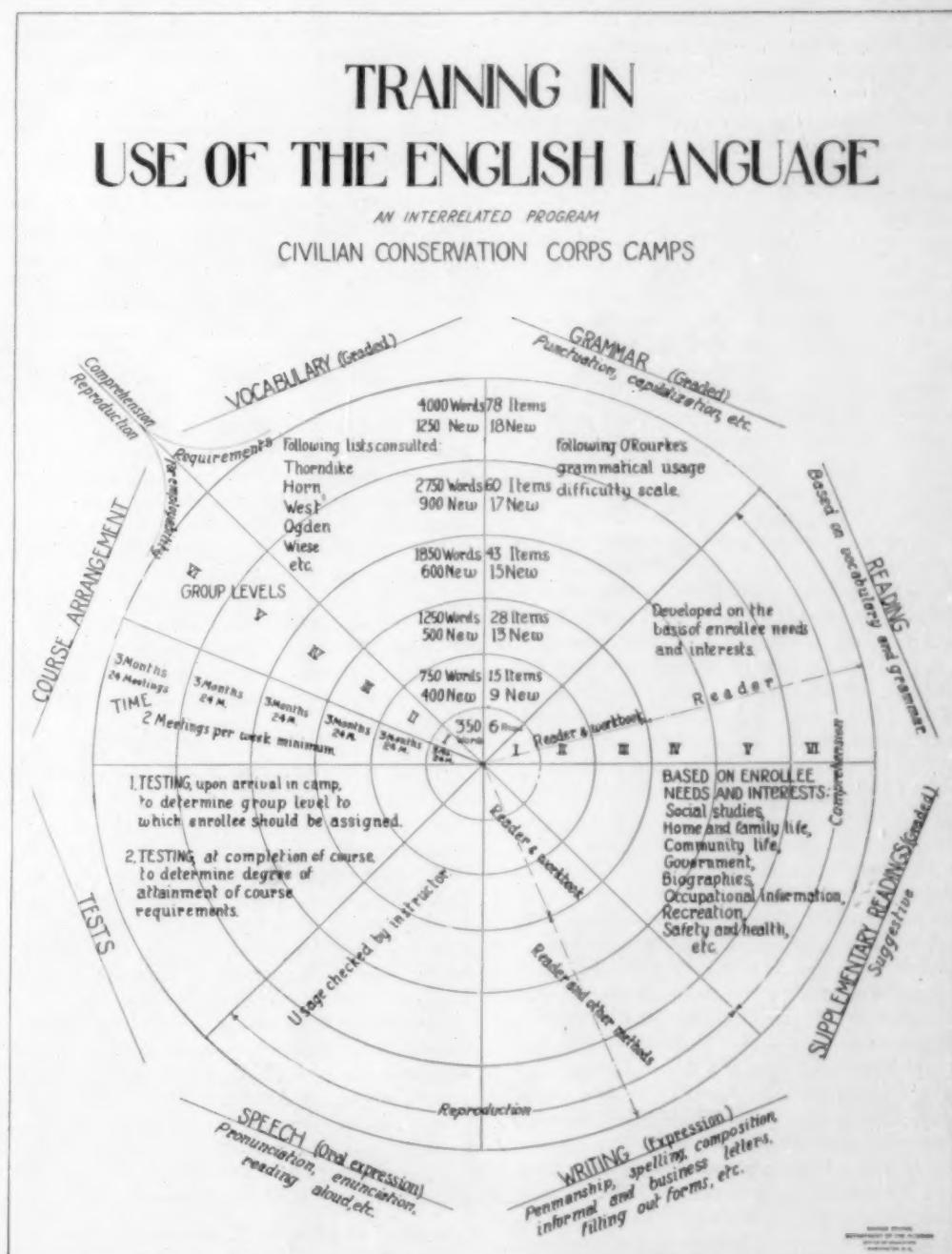
(c) Reestablishment of home and family relationships.

It is true that in the best sense of the word the entire life of the enrollee in camp is educational. However, the educative effectiveness of these processes cannot be left to chance. There must be an organized educational program which converts each phase of camp life into a definite teaching and learning situation. By utilizing all activities of camp life and work, the CCC watchword, "Learning by Doing," can be more fully realized.

Analysis Made

In order to translate the needs and interests of the enrollees in a given camp into a workable plan of training, an analysis of the training possibilities in the camp and available to the camp is made. These include:

(a) Prevocational and occupational training on the work project and on the camp overhead. The average work project includes approximately 65 different jobs which may be made the basis of training for occupations outside the corps, while the camp operating overhead offers from 9 to 12 separate jobs. A large percentage of the training needs of the enrollees of the camp can be met by job training



connected with the various tasks, together with related training during leisure time. A few examples are as follows: Cooking in the camp kitchen, stenography in the company and work project offices, truck driving in camp and on the project, retail sales in the camp canteen, masonry, surveying, tractor and heavy machinery operation, landscaping, terracing, and the like, on the work project. Related subjects are business English and mathematics, blueprint reading, drafting,

and the like. Full use is made of every training possibility, whatever the relative degree of potential skill.

(b) Occupational and prevocational training during leisure time. Not all of the training needs of a group of 200 enrollees can be met by training on the job in camp. Where training is needed which cannot be so provided, classes during leisure time in camp or in nearby cooperating schools are organized. Equipment is provided and instructors drawn from

the camp staff or from the outside. Where it is impossible to provide instruction in the camp the men are transported to nearby schools whose services are usually reimbursed or often secured on a free basis. Practice work is provided where necessary in order to simulate true working conditions.

(c) Remedial and related academic training. Approximately 100,000 or 35 percent of enrollees in the corps have not completed the work of the elementary grades. A program of remedial elementary work is provided for this group, leading to the granting of eighth-grade diplomas for a large number of men. In addition, the large need for academic work related to prevocational and occupational training is provided for during leisure time. In view of the fact that less than $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 percent of enrollees separated from the service return to school, greater emphasis is placed upon removing functional deficiencies than upon working for school credits. In order to meet the needs of a very large percentage of those needing further elementary training and related training, there has been evolved for use in the camps a functional elementary program. This program is built around a series of six work books in language usage and the same number in elementary arithmetic. The language-usage program aims to integrate the teaching of reading, both oral and silent; penmanship; spelling, vocabulary; grammar; and, through the use of graded supplemental readings, social studies. The vocabulary is set at 4,000 words, scientifically determined. Grammar is not taught as such, but is introduced as usage in accordance with a difficulty scale of 78 items. Camp life is the integrating interest factor.

(d) The larger field of social adjustment is not neglected in the curriculum of the corps. The avocational field is well covered by arts and crafts clubs, dramatics, and music, both as instructed groups and spontaneous activities. Regular instruction is provided in health and hygiene, which serves to fix the lessons learned through the healthful practices which camp regulations require, such as daily baths, dental inspection, and the like. All enrollees receive instruction in first aid as a requirement of the camp. Activities which emphasize the duties and privileges of citizenship are carried on. Ceremonies honoring men who have become 21 years of age are held. Leave is granted to permit voting by those eligible. Effort is made to emphasize the practical values of camp life in terms of good citizenship.

The program in the camps seeks constantly to draw out the various phases of camp life and define them in terms of the future experience of the enrollee. The Civilian Conservation Corps in its essence, both in camp and on the work project, is a training program. The efforts of those responsible for the training in the camps look toward extracting the maximum of training value from the life and work of the camp and adding to it such additional training as will meet the needs and problems of the enrollees of the camp.

Excerpts from Report

Chicago's Adult Education

The Americanization department of the Chicago Board of Education has developed its services tremendously since it was organized in 1917, until today 9,000 students avail themselves of the opportunities offered in these classes, according to Supt. William H. Johnson.

"An increased number of classes this year has resulted in an additional enrollment of over 2,000 students. Among the more than 9,000 in these groups are native born from 57 countries.

"The students range from 17 to 88 years of age. The largest number of students, nearly 3,000, are between the ages of 40 and 50, and approximately 100 are over 70 years of age.

"At the end of each school year, certificates and diplomas are given to many of these men and women. At the last commencement, about 700 certificates and diplomas were distributed.

"The adult education movement is becoming so well recognized, throughout the United States that it presents a challenge to every public-school system. The needs and demands of adults for general education as well as for specialized training are increasing throughout our Nation," Superintendent Johnson states.

Speech-Improvement Classes

"The work of the speech-improvement classes in the evening high schools divides itself into two types: The first and largest provides training for the foreign-born students who are sufficiently advanced to take up high-school work, but who have a noticeable foreign accent, and need, particularly, practice in English pronunciation; the second assists the American-born students whose English is faulty and indistinct.

"Several of the evening schools have special classes for the foreign born in which the emphasis is placed on minimizing foreign accent, acquiring American idiom, vocabulary growth, and developing a fluency in everyday speech. Phonic exercises, much class expression, and practice in the rhythm of English speech form a part of the classroom procedure.

Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing Classes

"Classes for the deaf and for those who are so hard of hearing that they are unable to hear speech except when it is greatly amplified, are provided in the Austin, Englewood, Fenger, and Schurz evening high schools.

"In these classes no attempt is made to teach anything except the technique of lip reading. Almost all of these students lost their hearing after they had reached adulthood. Their speech is satisfactory, but they are seriously handicapped, both socially and economically, because of their hearing defect. The skill in lip reading which these adults ac-

quire gives them a new lease on life, and in addition, opportunities for bettering their employment are greatly increased.

Evening Elementary Classes

"Approximately 6 percent of the evening school adults are in the elementary department. They are divided into two distinct groups—The American-born who wish to add to the meager education they had received when they were compelled for one reason or another to drop out of school in their childhood, and the foreign-born who enroll in Americanization classes in order to study the English language and prepare for citizenship. These adults may receive eighth-grade diplomas and citizenship papers, and frequently continue in the high-school departments.

"The Americanization classes each year expedite the naturalization of some 750 foreign-born persons who are anxious to qualify for citizenship. A visit to an average Americanization class will disclose 30 or 40 men and women of all ages and stations in life. Most of them have been in the United States less than a year, and some of them only a few weeks. Many of them had acquired an excellent education in their native lands. Vocationally, they range from day laborers who work only intermittently, to officers of foreign banking houses.

Adult Department

"The school year 1937-38 revealed a decided increase in the adult department at the Dante, the full-time day school for adults in the city. The membership today is twice what it was last year at this time. Almost 300 students are enrolled. The increase is due in part to the foreign language newspapers, recommendations of former students, the central office, and the principals of schools. The following statistics are interesting; 18 nations are represented in this year's enrollment.

	Students		Students
United States	64	Yugoslavia	6
Italy	38	Russia	3
China	36	Japan	3
Mexico	45	Albania	2
Greece	30	Chile	2
Poland	16	Colombia	2
Germany-Austria	12	Brazil	2
Lithuania	8	Rumania	6
Czechoslovakia	6	Total	281

"The past year has shown a great change in the educational background of these students. More and more, the enrollment includes students who have graduated from a secondary school in their native land. In a recent class, college graduates also were numbered among the members."

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards

by Carl A. Jessen,¹ Specialist in Secondary Education

★★★ Regional accrediting agencies of the United States, nearly 6 years ago, started a cooperative movement looking toward revision of standards for the accrediting of secondary schools. A committee was formed of representatives of the six associations which in their combined membership include all the 48 States and the District of Columbia. Thus came into being the cooperative study of secondary school standards.

In the early period of the study it was not infrequently referred to as a study of college entrance. Such characterization of the study was not only loose; it was erroneous; for there never was any intention on the part of those in charge of the study to make it an investigation of college entrance. They had become increasingly aware that, valuable as the principle of accrediting had been in developing American secondary schools, it was in need of revision if it was to continue to serve the best interests of secondary education in this country. They were reminded of this need more often by their own experience than by the statements of those outside the accrediting bodies who thought they had discovered that something was wrong with the accrediting system; and that experience told them that the standards ought to be revised not only for the benefit of those who were going to college, but in the interest of all youth.

As the plans for the study developed, the word "stimulation" found its way into the discussions with increasing frequency. In fact, it was mentioned approximately as often as accrediting. It came to be recognized more and more clearly that accrediting really was a problem which involved the continuous and progressive upbuilding of schools and that the stimulative factor might be emphasized with equal appropriateness whether accrediting were involved or not. And so it has followed rather naturally and logically that many of the schools and agencies which have put into operation the procedures developed by the cooperative study have done so for the purpose of stimulation and improvement and have not had interest in using the techniques for accrediting.

For instance, the Maryland program, under which 30 schools have been evaluated, and the Virginia program, which has included 19 schools this year, have both been conducted for stimulation to improvement; in neither case has accrediting been involved. On the other hand, there are the announced plans of the associations operating in the Middle Atlantic, the Southern, the North Central, and the Northwest regions of the United States to

¹ Mr. Jessen is secretary of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.



This map shows the territory in which each of the regional associations operates. The only State to have a double affiliation is Montana which is a member of both the North Central and Northwest Associations.

use the cooperative study procedures in lieu of their present standards for the accrediting of schools, such use being variously optional, recommended, or mandatory within stated periods of time.

The Guiding Principles

Early in the deliberations of the committee in charge of the study extended consideration was given to the development of a set of guiding principles to deal with philosophy and objectives, pupil population and school community, plant, staff, educational program, and administration. These guiding principles have undergone numerous revisions and are fundamental to the entire subsequent development of the study. They express the background from which have been developed the procedures and investigations here described. These guiding principles are stated in the *Evaluative Criteria*, the manual known by the title *How to Evaluate a Secondary School*, and the forthcoming *General Report of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards*. These three volumes and the series of charts known as *Educational Temperatures* are the four major publications of the cooperative study.

Check on Facilities

The cooperative study has carefully canvassed several types of methods which seemed to hold promise for correct evaluation of the efficiency of schools. One of these which readily suggests itself is a check of facilities.

More background of experience is available with regard to this method than any other, since the standards under which schools have been accredited in the past have so largely inquired into the facilities provided. The standards dealing with buildings and sites, libraries and laboratories are of this sort; similar, also, are the standards dealing with offerings, time requirements, teacher preparation, and the conditions under which teaching is carried on. The cooperative study by no means discarded the experience gained over a period of years by State and regional agencies in judging of the efficiency of education through a thorough check on the educational facilities and environment. Effort has been made to make this check more systematic, objective, and concrete through asking schools numerous questions concerning the facilities available with respect to plant, teaching staff, administration, and general educational program both curricular and extracurricular. These questions are contained as check-list items in the publication of the study known as *Evaluative Criteria*. Schools check themselves on a three-point scale as to whether the provisions are present to a very satisfactory degree, are present to some extent, or are unsatisfactory or completely lacking.

Check on Utilization

The *Evaluative Criteria* carry the check significantly further when inquiry is made, as is the case with many of the check-list items, concerning the utilization of facilities. Thus,

instead of merely ascertaining whether certain types of records are kept, inquiry is made into the use of those records for guidance and other purposes; a well-equipped, well-organized library may be relatively useless if it is only seldom used by teachers and pupils; excellent courses of study may have been prepared, but they are of little value unless they influence the everyday work of the classroom; teachers may be well trained academically and professionally, but if they are not efficient teachers the pupils suffer; and so on. The *Evaluative Criteria* secure information not only regarding the presence of facilities, but in no less measure regarding the use made of those facilities.

Another Feature

One other feature of the *Evaluative Criteria* is that at the end of each major section occurs a number of summarizing questions intended to bring out any important characteristics or evidences of growth which have not been adequately covered in the specific check-list items. The following five questions appearing at the end of the section on guidance are illustrative of this feature:

1. What are the best elements or characteristics of the guidance service?
2. In what respects is it least adequate or in greatest need of improvement?
3. In what respects has it been improved within the last 2 years?
4. What improvements are now being made or are definitely planned for the immediate future?
5. What scientifically conducted studies has the school made of its own problems in this field within the past 3 years or is it now making?

Visiting Committee

Finally there are contained in the *Evaluative Criteria* items which are labeled "Evaluations." These are inserted throughout the various sections for the use of a visiting committee. The members of this committee (usually three or more educators who have been trained in the use of the *Evaluative Criteria*), after spending 2 or more days in a school checking on the facilities and their utilization, fill in their evaluations on a five-point scale. While variations in the visiting program may occur, it is an integral part of the procedure in accrediting a school and is a useful part of evaluating a school for purposes of stimulation regardless of accrediting. The visiting committee brings into the procedure that expert judgment from an unbiased source without which no evaluation can have satisfactory validity.

Throughout the United States hundreds of individual educators have participated in one or more evaluations as members of visiting committees. The cooperative study first introduced the visiting procedure 3 years ago into 200 schools which were evaluated experimentally that year. During the last 2 years

the regional and State programs have given this opportunity to numerous others who have assisted in evaluations supervised by trained evaluators connected with the cooperative study.

Judging the School

Ever since it began to talk, the cooperative study has emphasized the importance of evaluating each school in keeping with its objectives. It is obvious, for instance, that a private school preparing a selected group of pupils for college entrance should not be judged in the same terms as a public high school which sends one-sixth of its pupils to college and has the obligation of training the other five-sixths of its pupil population for jobs. Evaluating a school in terms of its objectives is, however, not so simple a process as might at first sight appear, partly because the school often can furnish no clear-cut statement of its objectives, partly because the objectives when stated need to be examined by some criteria to determine whether they are the objectives the school ought to pursue, and partly because the evaluation of any school, once its objectives are known, is complicated if the evaluations are properly to take those objectives into account.

Early attempts of the study to solve this problem were not so successful as desired. Consequently during the present school year special methods of approach to the problem have been put into operation in 15 schools which agreed to work closely with the study in an effort to seek a solution. Attempt has been made to check the validity of the stated objectives of these schools against the character of the pupil-population and the type of community served. The objectives being thus validated, serve as a touchstone for application of the evaluative criteria to that school. The results of this experiment have not as yet been adequately analyzed to permit the issuing of a definite statement concerning its results, but indications are that it has had some measure of success.

Checking the Output

But someone says, How about the output? Check that adequately and the whole problem has been solved. Environment, utilization, committee judgment—all of these are of importance, but, after all, the essential of the whole matter is the product. Would it not be easier and much more direct to measure the results in the education obtained by girls and boys while they are in school and after they have left school?

The cooperative study did attempt to measure the product in a number of different ways. One way was through two batteries of standardized tests administered to more than 17,000 juniors in high school, one testing period coming in October and a second testing of the same pupils coming in May of the same school year. Another attempted approach was through investigation of the college success of graduates

who continued their education beyond high school. Still another was an effort to secure some measure of the success of former pupils of two different periods who had not gone to college, many of whom had withdrawn without completing high school.

Another series of investigations was aimed at securing the opinions of those who presumably would be most capable of passing judgment on the value of high-school education. Three such types of judgments were solicited from pupils in school, from parents of pupils in school, and from former pupils who had been out of school for 4 or more years. The total number of judgments so secured and tabulated exceeded 25,000.

The upshot of these elaborate attempts to measure results was that, while many of the schools found the results stimulating and useful, the procedures netted rather inadequate measures of the excellence of the schools.² For this reason the measures of results are recommended rather as devices for stimulation than as methods for evaluation of schools for accrediting.

Some Recommendations

The most significant procedures tested and recommended by the cooperative study involve a thorough canvass of the facilities of the school and the utilization of those facilities. This canvass is best made through participation of the entire faculty, each staff member giving attention to those features in the *Evaluative Criteria* which most intimately concern his work. The next step is to bring in a committee of experts to visit the school long enough to become thoroughly acquainted with its operation, to review and revise the responses made to check-list items, and finally to make the evaluations called for in the *Evaluative Criteria*. This done, the school is ready to compute its scores and to chart its strong and weak points on the educational thermometers contained in the publication called by this name.

² The reader who is interested in description and analysis of the testing program, the studies of success of graduates and drop-outs, and the canvass of opinions is referred to the *General Report of the Cooperative Study*.



List Available

How is education helping to solve home problems? What do high-school pupils like to study? How are needy college students getting an education? What is being done to improve teaching in the United States? What are the disappointments and satisfactions in library work?

Answers to these and many other questions appear in new publications of the Office of Education. A list of Office publications will be sent upon request. Write United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Problems of Vocational Guidance of Negroes

by Ambrose Caliver, Specialist in the Education of Negroes

★★★ This discussion is based upon the following three assumptions: *First*, that the principles of vocational guidance are the same for Negroes as for others, but that their application may be different under certain circumstances, and that special emphases and adjustments should be made in the operation of a guidance program for them. *Second*, that the conditions calling for special consideration are not inherent in the Negroes' racial characteristics, but rather result from their social and economic backgrounds and present status. *Third*, that vocational guidance is a phase of the total educational process. As such it must be concerned with a curriculum of activities and guidance which will give children the opportunity to learn how to live and work effectively, and assist adults in making adjustments to changing occupational conditions. Careful study of the problems Negroes face and of their possible solutions should be made by everyone actively interested in the education and welfare of this racial group.

Many of the problems herein discussed are encountered by others as well as by Negroes; but in their case the problems are often accentuated and the opportunities for solving them are fewer. Although there are a few places where they are receiving relatively effective guidance service, in general there is a great need in this field.

General Educational Program

According to available studies, few institutions for Negroes have organized guidance programs. In those institutions that provide guidance the programs are limited, as shown by the number gathering information about students, about occupations, and about the social and economic life of the community; and by the opportunities offered students to gain occupational experience.

The organization and administration of Negro schools are, in the main, along traditional lines with emphasis on academic subjects, and are lacking in flexibility. The curriculum for the most part has a minimum number of courses adapted to modern needs. Extracurriculum activities, which are excellent agencies in developing certain qualities that are basic to effective occupational adjustment and in assisting students in making occupational choices, are also limited. Two other conditions in the general education of Negroes which are of special concern in the conduct of a vocational-guidance program have to do with the large proportion of pupils who are overage and the excessive number who drop out of school early. The first condition requires an

adjustment of guidance materials and procedures for a given grade in terms of the ages of the pupils, and the second condition probably requires the introduction of more definite vocational-guidance services in earlier grades than usual in order to assure a more effective occupational adjustment of those who leave school early. These should be considered as temporary measures only, however, pending improvement in the conditions mentioned.

Problems encountered in attempting to utilize regular textbooks, in geography and history, for example, as vocational-guidance aids for Negro students are very important. An accurate presentation in the elementary and secondary-school textbooks of the Negro's contribution to the progress of America would have great value in stimulating the vocational interests and widening the occupational outlook of Negro boys and girls. Also, it probably would be helpful in creating a more favorable attitude among white persons toward Negroes, resulting in a helpful increase in occupational opportunities from the standpoint of placement as well as advancement. The same deficiency noted in regard to textbooks is found in supplementary readers. One difficulty in the past has been a lack of accurate information about Negroes. However, such information is available as separate works, and in some instances is included as parts of books treating general subjects.

Exploratory Opportunities

Some of the deficiencies in the general education of Negroes prevent the use of try-out and exploratory activities as guidance aids. For example: The lack of "reorganized" schools, the lack of "activity" programs, inadequate shop and laboratory facilities, and narrow curriculum and extracurriculum offerings.

Personal investigation and visits to industrial, business, and agricultural enterprises are other valuable means of helping students explore the work of the world. Opportunities to make use of such agencies have been more or less limited for Negroes. This same problem is faced when they are seeking after-school jobs. These jobs, whether used principally for self-support while attending school or for occupational experience, provide excellent opportunities for students to explore their own interests and fitness for the type of work being performed. Personnel studies of Negro students and of graduates and withdrawals from high school and college show that the types of after-school work in which they engage while students were limited, and conformed rather generally to the narrow occupational pattern followed by Negro adults.

Gathering and Interpreting Information

Studies of occupational choices made by Negro students show that a majority choose a professional occupation. Some of the reasons for this may be found in a study of their backgrounds, their school facilities, and their economic status. For example: (1) Because of their experience during slavery, Negroes developed a false sense of value of the different occupations, and learned to disdain manual work and related activities. (2) Because of the lack of educational opportunities, both in and out of school, their occupational outlook is narrow. (3) Because they observe that the professional occupations apparently provide Negroes greater economic security and social prestige, a disproportionate number express a preference for them. In interpreting and using the information about students' occupational choices the above facts should be kept in mind, and ways and means sought of broadening the range of their choices.

Tests are increasingly being used to gather information concerning the intelligence and aptitudes of students; three special problems, however, face the guidance worker who uses them in studying Negroes. The first is that the majority of Negroes have not had experiences that will make them familiar with the procedures and techniques of testing. Second, the lack of exploratory opportunities on all levels of education may make Negroes less versatile and deft in testing situations than others who have had the advantage of such opportunities. Third, their lack of skill in reading may also influence adversely their test results. Persons giving tests to Negroes should keep these problems in mind when drawing conclusions and interpreting results.

One of the most difficult problems facing guidance workers among Negroes is the lack of accurate cumulative records about students. Adequate guidance of students is impossible unless there is a record of their activities and interests, and of the evaluations which teachers make of students' activities. Lack of such records or their effective use is often a weak spot in the administration of schools for Negroes.

Counseling

Counseling is for the purpose of focusing all available facts and all the experiences of the student upon his particular problem or problems in order that he may be *helped* in arriving at a solution. This service for Negroes is frequently made more difficult because of various factors in Negroes' backgrounds which influence their personality. Shall Negroes be encouraged to select and prepare for occupations which do not "exist" for them; or shall they

be guided into those occupations in which large numbers of their group are already engaged; or, shall a "middle of the road" position be taken which recognizes the value of both procedures? These questions should be approached by counselors and teachers of Negro youth with as full an understanding as possible of the different factors involved.

Preparation

After Negroes have selected an occupation, there are special problems which they encounter in securing the necessary preparation. One problem is concerned with the deficiencies of schools for Negroes, previously mentioned, and relates to (1) limited offerings in vocational subjects; (2) lack of modern equipment and facilities; and (3) insufficient number of adequately prepared teachers of vocational subjects. Another problem is the lack of apprenticeship opportunities. Closely associated with this problem, and that of placement, is Negroes' lack of opportunity to engage in co-operative work-study programs in their vocational preparation. Still another problem which Negroes frequently face is their inability, on account of financial and other reasons, to attend the school that offers the best preparation for the occupation chosen.

Placement and Follow-up

"Job satisfaction" cannot be achieved unless employment is secured that effectively utilizes the powers of the individual and provides personal satisfaction, and service to society. But finding jobs for Negroes is a difficult and serious problem today. The problem arises from several conditions, among them being the following: As simple manual occupations became mechanized, white persons sought the jobs formerly held by Negroes, which, under changed conditions, demanded new skills and knowledge and which paid higher wages. In many cases, Negroes were not prepared to meet the new demands of these jobs, and in other cases, particularly since the depression, they were not employed if white persons were available. In addition to losing jobs formerly held, Negroes have found relatively few opportunities in the new occupations resulting from recent technological progress. Moreover, many employers have lacked faith in Negroes' ability to fit into the highly industrialized situations. Another belief held by some employers is that racial conflicts will result when Negroes and white persons work together. However, there are many, many examples which show that, if given opportunity, Negroes can make good in most occupations, and that Negroes and white persons can work together without racial conflicts.

Closely associated with these problems is the lack of apprenticeship opportunities for Negroes. This problem becomes serious in cases where an apprenticeship is essential to the completion of occupational training or to entrance upon work.

Many of the problems of placement discussed here are also applicable to follow-up. In addition, these conditions make follow-up of Negro workers particularly difficult: (1) Lack of personnel and program; (2) lack of funds; (3) lack of proper relationship between school and world of work; (4) lack of wide-awake community organizations among Negroes; and (5) lack of leadership based on a long-range program.

Suggested Solutions

There are many approaches to solutions of the problems of vocational guidance of Negroes. Specific approaches and programs will vary with communities, regions, and circumstances of the individual or group. Some of the more obvious solutions are implied in the discussions in this article. Other suggestions are given below. They are not offered as a panacea, but as possible aids toward solving the problems.

(1) Introduction of the study of guidance in institutions for the education of teachers.

(2) Preparation for adjustments to the swiftly changing occupational demands by giving students a thorough elementary education; and by teaching them the fundamentals of two occupations at least.

(3) Coordination of guidance and job finding efforts through a community committee in which the school might well assume leadership, with different agencies undertaking specific tasks. In order to avoid taking jobs away from one group and giving them to another, it is suggested that effort be made to have Negroes employed in (a) newly organized enterprises; (b) newly established divisions of old enterprises; and (c) newly created positions of old enterprises. In addition, Negroes should be encouraged to qualify for positions in Federal, State, and local governmental agencies.

(4) Development of programs designed to promote interracial goodwill and cooperation.

(5) Creation of a central bureau or agency to serve as a job clearing house, which would furnish information about available jobs in each community, and the number and qualification of applicants for jobs in each community.

(6) Development of a guidance and reeducation program for adults affected by occupational shifts and new demands.

(7) Conservation and cultivation of all the talents of Negroes in the interest of their personal development and the national welfare.



● Twenty-five States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws. An analysis of these laws—the occupation or industry covered, class of employees covered, minimum wage rates, and hours—is made in Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 167, *State Minimum Wage Laws and Orders*. 20 cents.

Residential Schools

(Concluded from page 294)

be left unturned in the attempt to discover and to stimulate remnants of hearing hitherto unused.

Rhythm

Because he cannot hear, the deaf child is oblivious to the existence of rhythmical sequences in the world of sound, and he is therefore unable to translate them into the rhythmical sequence of speech or the natural grace of the body. As a result, one often sees in untaught deaf children a shuffling gait, awkward posture, and clumsy movements of all kinds; and from those who have had a rigorous training in speech one frequently hears a series of explosive guttural sounds instead of the smoothness of voice found among hearing children. Some stimulus other than sound must be utilized to make them appreciate and imitate the rhythm of natural speech as well as the balance and poise of the body. In order to accomplish this, every school for the deaf makes extensive use of the piano. The vibrating strings of the instrument can be readily perceived by the deaf child through tactile experience. This medium, supplemented by the visual stimulus of his teacher's example, helps him to learn to interpret time, accent, pitch, and phrasing, and gradually to put into his own voice the rhythmical flow which he "hears."

The teacher may accompany the exercises in rhythmical speech with simple rhythmic actions. These in turn constitute the basis for the development of more complicated movements, such as marching, skipping, and even dancing. The grace and perfect time demonstrated by the children are sometimes so remarkable that it is difficult to convince the audience that they do not actually hear the music which accompanies their dances.

Occupational Experiences

Like all residential schools, the school for the deaf keeps ever in mind the objective of returning its graduates to normal community life to take their places as self-supporting and respected citizens. Some persons with seriously impaired hearing have attained marked success in a professional pursuit, but most of them find it easier to make vocational adjustment through trade or industrial service, particularly of the types not requiring extensive communication with fellow workers. Therefore, in those schools which offer vocational training great stress is laid upon such activities. In some schools practically all of the work carried on in the vocational department is really prevocational and of an exploratory type, with the expectation that the student will receive more intensive training after he has left school through the vocational rehabilitation service of the State department of education. In others the vocational

offerings are both intensive and extensive. One school for boys has operated at least 22 different vocational activities, and it joins two other schools for the deaf in the same city in maintaining an employment service for graduates. In 1937 this school reported: "In spite of the employment crisis of the past years it has been possible to secure employment for practically all graduates of these schools since the employment service was inaugurated a little less than 3 years ago. It is quite evident that the advantages of a superior vocational training are reflected in this unusual record of employment."

Social Adjustment

Deaf people cannot live in a world of their own, apart from all that concerns hearing people. Theirs is the privilege, the right, and the responsibility to find happiness within the world, not away from it. And the achievement of that happiness depends upon two factors. The first is the extent to which they have been prepared to take their places in a hearing world as well-adjusted personalities willing to accept without bitterness certain limitations imposed upon them by reason of their handicap, yet able to achieve in spite of them. The second factor is the extent to which the hearing world in which they live is taught to appreciate the persons that they can be and the work that they can do.

Residential schools have a heavy responsibility in both these areas, and many of them are doing their utmost not only to educate deaf children, but also to educate a hearing public. Pupils are given every opportunity to mingle with hearing children, to visit in the homes of hearing people, to perform before a hearing public, and to demonstrate their occupational efficiency before hearing employers. They are helped to adjust the personality difficulties that inevitably arise in the growing-up process, that are sometimes exaggerated because of the physical handicap, and that without adjustment are an increasing menace to satisfactory human relationships. The teachers make their presence felt outside the school, participate in the work of community service clubs, affiliate actively with State teachers' organizations, and follow the progress of modern educational practices. The hearing public, on the other hand, is informed at every opportunity of the work of the school, is invited to see it in operation, is given tangible evidence of the achievements of its graduates, and is reminded of its needs.

All of these things contribute to the deaf pupil's possibilities for successful living in the days that are to come. As a member of our great American citizenry he should have his opportunity for happiness gained through well-rendered service. The residential school and the day school have much to give to each other in helping him to reach that goal.



From Evil Spirits to Microbes

by James Frederick Rogers, M. D., Consultant in Hygiene



Many diseases are communicable but, fortunately, information concerning those diseases is also communicable and it is highly appropriate that this knowledge should be furnished by the United States Public Health Service. That Service has long been engaged in preventing the importation of such diseases and it has served as a powerful aid in their control within our borders. In its early days and for a century later, the Service had little to tell the public about communicable diseases other than that they were communicable, or "contagious," or "infectious," for those fearsome words nearly summed up what was known. We knew that certain ailments were somehow transferred from the sick to the well and, after many thousand years of experience, we had also learned that by keeping the sick from association with their fellows until the telltale signs of disease had disappeared, it would then be safe to resume their companionship.

Some diseases are slow going and may be communicated over a long period. In ancient Babylonia and in Palestine persons with such ailments, notably leprosy (or what went by that name in those days), were driven out of the camp, or city, and made to remain at a distance from their more fortunate fellows until they were fully recovered or dead. In Europe in the Middle Ages they might even be required to carry a bell in order to give warning of their approach. Other communicable diseases are rapid in their development and progress. They spread like a wave over a community, lay a considerable portion of the population on its back, or in its grave and are gone for the time. Where people were huddled together as was the case on ships in early days, it was observed that those exposed either had such a disease, or they were not going to have it, within a comparatively short space of time.

In the fourteenth century the public health servants of Ragusa, a city of Dalmatia, forbade ships suspected of carrying cases of the Black Death, along with more desirable cargo, to land their passengers, crews, or goods for the space of 30 days, or until they were unlikely to be a menace. In the Italian tongue this period was known as a "trentina." It was later decided that it would be safer to extend this period from 30 to 40 days or to a "quarantine," and this method of control was soon adopted by other Mediterranean ports.

Our Public Health Service prevents the communication of disease from abroad to our citizens, but not many travelers are detained and seldom are any of them held for 40 days. However, the historic word, "quarantine" still stands for that period of isolation no matter what its length.

Solving the Mystery

The "trentina" and "quarantine" reflected a vast step forward in man's groping after definite knowledge concerning the cause of contagious diseases. He had passed that dismal stage when they were looked upon as the work of spiteful spirits, or a visitation by a vengeful deity. Evidently the practitioners of preventive medicine of the Renaissance realized that human beings, or some other earthly go-betweens were involved for they burnt the bedding of the sick, aired their rooms and made use of those very practical weapons of sanitation—soapsuds and sunlight.

Back in the thirteenth century, Roger Bacon, in his little book on the preservation of health mentioned first among the causes of sickness "living creatures which infest the air and cause infection." This was a bold guess by this father of modern science for no one had ever seen such "living creatures." As late as 1683 another writer on hygiene remarked that people "believe that plague, smallpox, the itch, and other mangy and Leprous Distempers are catching because the effects immediately follow and they see them externally in the flesh; therefore most of the persons do both fear and shun communicating with such." He admitted, however, that the more exact "nature of infection and how it is spread and how to be avoided is very little or scarce at all understood." Just about this time a Dutch lens-maker named Leeuwenhoek produced a glass by means of which he was able to see "with the greatest astonishment" minute creatures moving about in a drop of water and in his saliva. These microscopic forms of life proved to be related to those we now know have the power of producing disease. It was nearly two centuries, however, before these seemingly insignificant organisms were finally incriminated as the fearsome go-betweens of communication.

Besides that skilled maker of microscopes we have to thank Henle, Schwan, Davaine, Pasteur, Lister, Koch, and other workers in many countries for solving the age-long mystery. Nor should we overlook the name of Edward Jenner who, putting two and two together from his observations in medical practice, was able to prevent a most dreaded disease although to this day no man has seen the organism which may be transferred from the victim of smallpox to his unprotected-by-vaccination neighbor. So difficult was it to escape this disease in the days of its undisturbed communicability that many persons were willing to contract it from what seemed a mild case by direct transfer of material from the sores of the sick in order to possibly escape more certain death from a severe infection.

Jenner did away with this dangerous procedure from which many lost their lives and he saved millions from the disease by borrowing his material for communication from the cow, in which animal the causal agent assumes a form that can be handled by the human body with less effort and without fear as to the outcome.

Cause of the Trouble

The transfer of a disease from one person to another involves at least a third party. This party of the third part may be visible to the naked eye (as is the case in hookworm disease) but it is usually microscopic and it is because of the variety of these participants in transfer that we have so many different diseases.

Small as they are, microbes which cause disease differ enormously in size and they present a variety of shapes, some being more or less spherical ("cocci" in Greek), some like a cylinder or rod ("bacilli"), and some curved or twisted ("spirilla"). But it is not because of such characteristics that they produce their differing effects. The bacillus of leprosy and that of tuberculosis look alike so far as they can be made visible and there are harmless germs which resemble them both. The all-important feature of each is its chemical make-up for even such tiny forms of life differ decidedly in their essential substance. They, in themselves, may be highly poisonous and the materials which they produce in the process of their rapid growth and reproduction may also be very harmful. Human beings also differ somewhat in their chemistry and if this were not the case, we would all be equally responsive to the organisms of disease. We would be equally ill or not at all affected by their presence.

A communicable disease is a chemical warfare in which the laboratories of the body are set to work making appropriate munitions to check the rapid multiplication of the invaders and to neutralize the effects of their weapons. After a successful resistance to some organisms the body is able to maintain its defenses against a second inroad and this blessed state of preparedness is called immunity. Scientists, besides Jenner, have been clever enough to help us in our struggles with these unseen foes by preparing for our use materials of war in their man-made laboratories and with the assistance of our animal friends.

Methods of Communication

The germs of some diseases find lodging and flourish in the organs for breathing and they are thrown out of the body in the acts of sneezing and coughing. We speak of diseases caused by such organisms as spray spread or spray borne because the droplets of saliva or mucus from the mouth or nose sprayed into the air may be breathed in by an unsuspecting and unprotected neighbor. The cause of a few diseases finds lodgement in the skin or the more delicate linings of the openings of the body and may be communicated by intimate

contact with the body of another person. Other organisms develop in the food canal, are discharged from the intestine and, if cleanliness and care are not observed, find their way directly or indirectly into the food or water consumed by another person. Insects may help in the communication of these and other germs for many microbes can travel on the foot of a fly and if the fly carrying such passengers lands on a pie or in a pitcher of milk the transfer may readily be made. Other insects are all important go-betweens in some maladies. The part they play now seems plain enough but the discovery of that role was anything but simple or safe and its telling is one of the thrilling stories of history.

What Happens After Communication

After the transfer of the organisms often nothing happens because the person has been prepared by past experience or by the protective aid of a physician. The germs find the soil most inhospitable. In other cases nothing seems to happen for a few or for many days, but something is happening behind the scenes. The organisms have not only found a lodging but are multiplying at a rapid rate. This period is called that of incubation. Disease germs especially enjoy the temperature of the body but they are being more than incubated. They have found those other necessities for their development—moisture, darkness, and suitable food. Headache, sore throat, chilliness, fever, loss of appetite, weakness or whatever we notice in the way of "symptoms" soon tell us that the body is reacting to the presence of the foe and that the war is on. It is time to take to our beds and call a doctor. These earliest indicators of infection are much alike in different diseases and are little help in deciding what germ we are dealing with and how much trouble lies ahead. But they are important not only in looking after our own welfare but for the protection of others for the disease may be highly communicable in these early and ill-defined stages.

Epidemics

Microbes we have with us, or with some of us, always, for most of the harmful ones do not long flourish outside a human body and we may often be their unsuspected and unsuspecting hosts or carriers. There are years when they are relatively harmless and few people are ill on their account and there are seasons when they are particularly vicious, in which case we say we are having an epidemic. The presence and extent of such an outbreak depends in part on whether a similar outbreak has occurred recently leaving a considerable number of the population partly or wholly prepared by their previous experience with the organism. It also depends on whether the organism is unusually virulent, for microbes have their ups and downs from year to year. Just why this is the case is not clear

but we know that their natures can be changed by artificial conditions of living in the laboratory. Whether or not we are ill and whether or not a disease is prevalent we cannot neglect precautions against the communication of its cause.

Door Openers

Some communicable diseases are more or less seasonal. The number of cases and the number of deaths run higher in certain months of the year than in others. This is notoriously the case with colds. As the name indicates, they belong chiefly to the colder months. Pneumonia is also far more frequent in winter than in summer though its cause is with us the year round. Because of the cold people live more indoors and in closer contact, but mere contact is not the only reason for frequent infection. Cold is man's greatest enemy next to starvation, and prolonged chilling somehow renders the body more susceptible to invasion with organisms which find lodgement in the nose and throat. Besides, prolonged exposure to cold, poor feeding, loss of sleep, fatigue, and illness from other causes have an influence in reducing our powers of resistance to these microscopic enemies. It is highly important that we keep ourselves at all times in the best of condition and when unavoidably chilled, exhausted, or ailing, that we take the time and trouble of restoring our bodies to that condition of balance and of preparedness which is called health.

Letting in the Light

Great progress has been made in the control of communicable diseases. Cholera, plague, typhus, and yellow fever have been banished from our shores though in some lands they still take a terrible toll of life. The word smallpox no longer causes a shudder while typhoid and tuberculosis are far less frequent than formerly. Unfortunately there is much that we do not know about infantile paralysis; pneumonia is a powerful destroyer while influenza and colds are all too common. However, if we would put into practice all the knowledge we possess, the number of the sick and of premature deaths would be greatly reduced.

Fortunately there are not many parents nowadays who think their children should have the measles or whooping cough "and get them over with" (and possibly pass off the scene or be damaged for life) and not many persons are so foolish and vicious as to risk their lives and imperil their fellows by concealing the fact that they have a communicable disease. Two very frequent and serious diseases, syphilis and gonorrhea, once considered unmentionable are now out in the open. Sunlight is a most powerful germicide and the light of knowledge is our most potent agent in bringing about the prevention of disease and the promotion of health.



Bronze medal presented to the pedagogical museum of the Bureau of Education at the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893. The face of the medal was designed by Augustus Saint-Gaudens.

Pedagogical Museum

by Edith A. Wright, Research and Reference Librarian

★★★ Much curiosity has been aroused at times, in students delving into the history of the Office of Education, concerning the ultimate disposition of what is often referred to as the "Educational Museum." Within the past few months we have had occasion to investigate this question, and, for the enlightenment of others, are setting down a few facts as gleaned from our recent study.

As early as 1870, John Eaton, second Commissioner of Education, had in mind the idea of an educational museum. In his first report as Commissioner (1870), he says:

"Since our occupation of larger quarters I have undertaken the beginning of a collection of apparatus and textbooks, which I hope will be extended until it includes every improvement made in this direction either among our own people or in foreign lands." He then recommends appropriate quarters, "so that the plan of making and preserving a collection of educational works, reports, pamphlets, apparatus, maps, etc., may be carried out with facility."¹

With the aid of Commissioner Eaton a mass of educational material was collected for the centennial exhibition, held in Philadelphia, in 1876. At the end of this exhibition the collection was turned over to the Office of Education as a nucleus for an educational museum. In 1877, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, in session at Washington, D. C., passed the following resolution:

"Resolved, That the superintendents recog-

nize the great importance of the organization of an educational museum at Washington, using as the basis of such a museum the national educational exhibit at Philadelphia; and still further resolved, that the provision of plans and means of operation of such a museum be submitted to a special committee of this body, to report at the annual meeting of the association in August next.²

At another meeting of the association the same year, the Committee on the National Bureau of Education,

"Resolved, That we believe a permanent building of suitable proportions and arrangements for the accommodation of an adequate clerical force, for the preservation of the rapidly increasing professional library, and for the reception and classification of the generous donations already made, and to be made by foreign countries, as well as by our own people to the pedagogical museum, is a prime necessity, and that speedy provision for the same ought to be made by our national authorities."³

J. Ormond Wilson, one-time Superintendent of Schools of Washington, D. C., at this meeting, speaking of a national educational museum, said: "While no governmental educational museum has ever yet been organized by the United States, the advisability of making such a collection has been realized, and its creation urged . . ." Although the Government was unable to obtain anything by purchase at that time (1877), we learn from Mr. Wilson that "many gifts were made to the

Commissioner (of Education) by foreign individuals and governments, so that, in fact, a very large educational collection, comprising many thousands of separate articles, is now stored in Washington, awaiting the action of Congress. This comprises, first, the most of the collections exhibited at Philadelphia by the United States Commissioner, viz: the statistical charts, maps, and diagrams, prepared at the Bureau of Education expressly for the exhibition, and which give a most clear and comprehensive view of the statistics of education, both public and private, in the United States. Second, the models, publications, furniture, apparatus, and school appliances, etc., exhibited. Third, the views of colleges, universities, and schools, which formed such an attractive feature of the exhibition. Fourth, the very valuable collection illustrating the progress of education among the Indians. In addition to these articles, the very complete and interesting educational exhibit made at the suggestion of the United States Commissioner of Education by the Government of Japan, has been presented to the Commissioner of Education as a donation to the contemplated National Educational Museum . . ."⁴

In recommending the establishment of an educational museum, Superintendent Wilson says that such an "Educational museum at Washington could be developed into an institution where Americans could see for themselves all the new and improved educational appliances of other nations without being compelled, as now, to cross the sea. In a properly organized museum wherein every department of material relating to education, whether concerning the proper building, lighting, heating, and ventilating of schoolrooms, and their furnishing; or the best textbooks and apparatus, should be constantly on exhibition, arranged under intelligent supervision; it is easy to see that the educators of the country would possess the means of avoiding many mistakes and of readily keeping themselves informed of the best results of the efforts of educators throughout the world to extend, develop, and improve the all-important science of education.

"In view of the great necessity that is felt for some such central repository where all the facts relating to the various needs of public education can be readily ascertained; and in view of the fact that so satisfactory a commencement has been already made toward founding a National Educational Museum as is shown by the collections of articles, and of the educational library now in charge of the United States Commissioner of Education at Washington, it is the opinion of this committee that it is the duty of Congress to make suitable provision for the collection, preservation, and care of a National Educational Museum, which shall meet the needs of the educators and of the public."⁵

¹ National Education Association. Proceedings, 1877, p. 259.

² *Idem*, p. 55.

⁴ National Education Association. Proceedings, 1877, pp. 56, 57.

⁵ *Idem*, pp. 57-58.

In 1877, the Department of Superintendence *Resolved*, That, as an important means of promoting the educational interests of the country, we regard it as the duty of Congress to make the necessary provision for the collection, installation, preservation, and care of a national museum of education in connection with the library of the Bureau of Education, and we express our earnest hope that this subject will be taken into consideration in determining the amount of the appropriation requisite to sustain and carry forward the legitimate operations of the Bureau.⁶

At a meeting of the Department of Superintendence in 1879, a committee report on national legislation referring to the pedagogical library and museum of the Bureau of Education, said that "The proper arrangement and display of this material and the preparation of catalogs and inventories, together with the other work that has been named, demand, in the opinion of your committee, an addition to the present clerical force. . . ."⁷

It is apparent from these extracts that an educational museum was considered a highly desirable adjunct to the Office of Education and that the Office of Education seemed the logical place for its development.

Visual Aids

In the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1880, Dr. Eaton makes the following remarks on visual aids to education, which, in view of the present activity in this field, may be of some general interest:

"What the engraving and the wood cut are to the text of a book the museum is to the library. The picture, the model, the specimen, supplement the best description that words can give . . . The eye can teach us much without the book, yet we are disposed to overlook the power of objects in illustrating and illuminating subjects usually considered abstruse and uninviting. This Office, as a central and national agency, has had an extremely gratifying connection with the advancing use of visual aids to education during the 10 years now closing.

"I have advocated the representation of American education in the various international exhibitions which have occurred during the last decade . . . During the last few years the Office has been collecting and preserving objects relating to education at home and abroad, with special reference to the public information and guidance. So far as the limited appropriation at its command will justify, I propose to use this museum in every suitable way for the information of the public; but the important instrumentality of loan collections cannot be undertaken as it should be, however productive of good in England or elsewhere, till Congress is pleased to afford the necessary means of defraying

⁶ U. S. Bureau of Education. Circular of Information No. 2, 1879, p. 165.

⁷ *Idem*, p. 101.

their cost and of adding yearly to their variety and value . . . I have also recommended that provision be made for the organization of an educational museum in connection with this Office. This has been provided for by a small appropriation. A larger annual appropriation would soon bring all objects of sufficient importance into a single collection here at the capital of the Nation for the study of American educators."⁸

Growth of Museum

By 1883 the educational museum had grown to such proportions that it occupied one room on the first and the whole of the fourth floor of a building 70 by 40 feet (The Wright Building). There were specimens of typography, atlases of graphic methods of presenting statistical facts, a collection of clay models, photographs showing the successful education of Indian boys and girls at Carlisle Barracks, Pa., portraits and busts of educators and benefactors to education, a series of models showing the development and improvement of farming implements from the earliest times down to the present day. At this time, it was proposed, when practical, to select from the material loan collections for use in teachers' institutes, normal schools, lecture courses, etc.

Thus, we learn to what extent the idea of an educational museum was developed during the incumbency of Commissioner Eaton. In one of his last reports, he says:

"The organization of the educational museum in connection with this Office, which I have had the honor to recommend, now constituting a collection of great value and more and more visited and studied by teachers and school officers, should have a sufficient appropriation to enable it, by exchange and otherwise, to supply similar collections in the office of the several State superintendents and leading cities when desired. A new and important additional demand has been made upon the collection for supplying exhibits where educational collections are presented in State and other expositions. There can be no question of the effective aid these collections would render to the progress of education. Through this Office the best illustrations of improved appliances should be collected and distributed to all parts of the country."⁹

When Nathaniel Dawson succeeded Dr. Eaton as Commissioner, he stressed the need of clerical help to take care of the rapidly growing educational museum and in his report for 1886-87, commenting on the lack of space, outlined a plan for its future care, in these words:

"This collection of educational apparatus and appliances has never received the attention which its value and extent demand, partly on account of the want of space for an ade-

quate display of the same. Desiring that it should be made serviceable to some extent, I have caused a selection of the articles to be made, have made some additions in order to complete the collection, and have had the same catalogued, cased and displayed in accordance with the most approved methods, following the general plan furnished by the National Museum. Visitors to this Office will find this collection of infinitely greater value than ever before for educational purposes, on account of the ease with which they can have access to the articles for examination, comparison, and study. The museum as now arranged will be a genuine surprise to almost any one not connected directly with the office. That portion now exhibited contains approximately 2,500 objects and series of objects.

"It has been suggested that the museum, on account of the want of room for its proper display, and the want of means to bestow upon it that care and attention which are necessary for its preservation, should be deposited in the National Museum until proper accommodation shall be provided for this valuable collection.

"For many reasons this arrangement would be a subject of regret to the friends of education, who have so zealously and carefully watched and fostered the growth of this valuable addition to the educational facilities of the Bureau and the idea could only be entertained on account of the great necessity that exists for its preservation."¹⁰

Little is found concerning the educational museum in the reports of Dr. Harris, who succeeded Nathaniel Dawson as Commissioner. In his annual statement for 1890, Dr. Harris dismisses the subject with only a few words. "Certainly the most important article of apparatus in any school is the textbook used . . . We propose, therefore, during the coming year to increase the department of textbooks in the museum by adding as far as we are able complete lists of the textbooks in use in the several countries of Europe."¹¹

We learn nothing further of the collection until 1907, when Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, then Commissioner of Education, tells us:

"Considerable beginnings have been made in past years in the collection of materials for an educational museum. These materials have been drawn in large part from the educational exhibits of several world's fairs. To round out this collection and make it available for use will involve large expenditures—larger, in fact, than I could ask for at this time without endangering appropriations more immediately and urgently needed. I have found, moreover, that, in the cramped quarters occupied by the Bureau, the museum materials have been seriously impeding the use of the Library. These materials have accordingly

¹⁰ Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1886-87, p. 12-13.

¹¹ Annual Statement of the Commissioner of Education, 1890, p. 10.

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North Dakota's Board of Higher Education

by John H. McNeely, Specialist in Higher Education

★★★ One of the problems confronting the States in the erection of their governmental structures is the organization of appropriate agencies for the control of the State universities and colleges.

Because of the fact that State higher education is an enterprise fundamentally different from the other functions of the State, it has been the common practice to establish a single board or separate boards to govern and administer these institutions. The responsibilities of the board or boards in general have been limited to the control of the higher educational institutions alone and have not included the institutions of other types operated by the State. Moreover, the board or boards have been so organized as to make them more or less independent of the Governor and other regular officers of the State government. The purpose of this arrangement has been to free them as far as possible from partisan political influence.

Of special interest in this connection is the new organization just set up by North Dakota for the control of its State universities and colleges. Through a constitutional amendment, a State board of higher education has been established in that State. This board has been made responsible for governing the State's nine higher educational institutions including the State university, State agricultural and mechanic arts college, the five State teachers colleges or normal schools, the State school of forestry, and the State school of science. The new board assumes control of the institutions on July 1, 1939.

Prior to the establishment of the new organization, North Dakota has had a State board of administration that has governed and administered not only all the higher educational but also the penal and charitable institutions conducted by the State, such as the penitentiary, reformatory, insane asylum, and the like. There are five members of the board. Two are the State superintendent of public instruction and the State commissioner of agriculture and labor serving ex officio. The other three are appointive members receiving each a salary of \$3,000 annually. The board has offices in the State capitol building and is a part of the regular central State government. The three salaried members were appointed by the Governor for overlapping terms of 6 years, one being appointed every 2 years. They are also subject to removal by the Governor for cause.

Seven-Member Board

The newly created State board of higher education, which will take the control of the State higher educational institutions entirely out of the hands of the State board of administration, is organized along different lines. It is to consist of seven members, all of whom are to serve without pay. There is none of the State officials to hold ex officio positions on the board with the result that the board has been separated from the regular State governmental organization.

Each of the members is to serve for a term of 7 years. The terms are so arranged that the term of one member expires each year. Since a majority of the board consists of four members, a period of 4 years must elapse and four new members must come into office before the majority control of the board may be altered. The effect is that the board will be given a permanency and will be enabled to carry out long-time policies without interruption. But the most important feature is the method of selecting the members of the board. This method is entirely new, no other States having adopted it in choosing the governing boards of their higher educational institutions.

Under the procedure to be followed, the president of the North Dakota Educational Association, the chief justice of the supreme court, and the State superintendent of public instruction by unanimous action nominate three names to the Governor for each prospective member of the board. The Governor makes a selection of one of the persons and appoints him subject to the consent of the senate. In the event that the senate fails to confirm the Governor's appointment, a new list is prepared in the same manner and the Governor makes a second selection that is submitted to the senate.

When Vacancy Occurs

If a vacancy occurs in the board when the senate is not in session, the Governor is authorized to appoint a new member until the senate next convenes, but the selection by the Governor must again be made from a list of three names nominated by the same group. The Governor has no power to remove members of the board. They may only be removed by impeachment for offenses and in the same manner provided for the removal of the Governor by impeachment

proceedings. One of the primary reasons for the adoption of these measures was to make the board nonpolitical and to insure its independence from partisan control or influence of every character.

The new North Dakota Board of Higher Education is empowered as soon as practicable after it assumes office in July to appoint a State commissioner of higher education. A requirement is that the appointee be familiar by training and experience with the problems peculiar to higher education. This commissioner is to serve as chief executive officer of the board in governing and administering the State's nine higher educational institutions. An office is to be set aside at the State capitol building as permanent quarters for him. The board is to appoint the commissioner for a term of 3 years, but he is subject to removal by the board for cause.

As already indicated, this board was established by an amendment to the State constitution. Under such circumstances, it has come into existence through the organic or basic law of the State and cannot be abolished by the State legislature. The constitutional amendment also contains provisions prescribing the powers and duties of the board over the institutions, which are likewise not subject to modification by legislative enactments. This amendment was voted upon by the people of North Dakota and was carried by a majority of 18,555 votes.



Pedagogical Museum

(Concluded from page 312)

been carefully boxed and placed in storage against the day when they can be properly displayed and cared for. Certain models and instruments belonging to this collection have been loaned to the public schools of the District and to the Government Hospital for the Insane, where they can be put to immediate use.¹²

Finally, in 1910, what was left of the educational museum was transferred to our National Museum here in Washington, where some of it is now on display. Each year 2,000,000 visitors throng the various museum buildings, taking advantage of the many educational opportunities offered to them through the exhibits there displayed.

When the United States Department of the Interior installed its museum in the new Interior Building, space was assigned to the Office of Education for the purpose of showing the development of education and of the Office of Education through the years. This exhibit is now installed in the northwest corner of the Exhibit Hall on the first floor of the Interior Building.

¹² *Idem*, 1907, p. 5.



THE VOCATIONAL SUMMARY



One of Many

To collect information which would be valuable to teachers of vocational guidance and to those responsible for the organization of vocational education programs, the city of Lancaster, Pa., recently made a survey of 13,749 pay-roll jobs found in the community. This number, it is explained, does not include all jobs in the community but it does embrace all those for whom training might be given by the public schools.

The general summary of the results of the survey are contained in a mimeographed résumé, which gives briefly the estimated number of persons engaged in particular vocations, the number needed each year for these vocations, and the number now being specifically trained for entrance into the vocations for the ensuing year.

For instance, the survey showed that only within a comparatively short period had adequate training been provided for skilled auto mechanics and that previously it was necessary for those engaged in this trade to train "green hands" as best they could. It showed that there is little opportunity for draftsmen and designers with less than a college education. It brought out the fact that persons trained in the machinist trade can find employment in this field and that it is possible for one engaged in semiskilled operation work to be advanced to this type of work after he has gained practical experience. And it also showed that it would be unwise for schools to set up training for motormen and conductors since demands for these two groups are diminishing rapidly in Lancaster.

Only a few of the findings of the Lancaster survey are presented. But they are sufficient to show the value of a survey not only to vocational educators but also to individuals who wish information which will help them to decide upon a trade or occupation.

The Lancaster survey is only one of a large number of occupational surveys made in Pennsylvania communities under grants made for the purpose by the State legislature.

Virginia Did It

Interesting figures showing the scope and value of supervised farm practice projects carried on by vocational agriculture students are presented by the States from time to time. The report from Virginia for the fiscal year 1937-38, for instance, shows that students in day-school classes in agriculture in that State completed projects involving 15,067 acres of farm crops—alfalfa, buckwheat, clover, corn, cotton, cowpeas, hay, oats, potatoes, tobacco, wheat and similar crops—from which they received a total income of \$364,779; 11,341 animals—beef and dairy cattle, horses, sheep, swine, and other livestock—from which they

received an income of \$204,173; 278,272 fowls—laying hens, turkeys, ducks, and guineas—from which they received an income of \$97,950; and horticultural crops—aspargus, beans, cabbage, cantaloups, onions, orchard crops, raspberries, strawberries, tomatoes, and watermelons—from which they received a total income of \$86,660.

And note, these are the figures for only one State!



Layton S. Hawkins, whose appointment as Chief of the Trade and Industrial Education Service, Office of Education, was recently announced.

Minneapolis Conference

A national training conference on trade and industrial education and distributive education will be held at the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute, Minneapolis, Minn., from August 14 to 26, inclusive, under the auspices of the trade and industrial education service of the Office of Education.

The plan followed in conducting this conference will be the same as that followed in a similar conference held in 1936, except that the scope will be broadened to consider training problems in the field of the distributive occupations and the public service occupations.

The Office of Education has had assistance in planning the conference of a committee of representatives of State boards for vocational education which met in Washington early in the spring. It is planned to provide training in conference leading, teacher training, supervision, improvement of trade and industrial education program, distributive education, and public-service training.

A Wide Range

Emphasis is frequently placed upon the fact that the rehabilitation of disabled persons must be done on a case rather than on a mass basis, and that the period necessary to train a disabled person for employment may range from a few weeks to a year or more.

Figures compiled in connection with a study made recently by the rehabilitation division of the Office of Education show that the average length of time necessary to train disabled persons covered in the study for selected employments, ranged from 1.6 to 23.5 months and the average cost of training from \$25 for training for operating a stand to \$276.17 for training for law.

The fields for which those included in the study were trained include engineering, law, and teaching in the professional field; commercial art, drafting, and blue print-reading in the technical and semitechnical field; accounting, bookkeeping, stenography, business administration, general commercial education, office machine operation, salesmanship, secretarial work, and stand operation in the clerical, sales, and business fields; clothes servicing, dressmaking and designing, electrical work, linotype operation, photography, power machine sewing, printing, seamstress work, welding, and soldering in the skilled and semiskilled fields; and auto body repairing, auto mechanics, radio servicing and repair, refrigerator servicing and repair, shoe repairing and watch repairing, in the repair, service, and maintenance field.

Vocational Leader Passes

Edward E. Gunn, Jr., who for more than 20 years was connected with the vocational education program in Wisconsin, first as teacher and principal and later as supervisor of trade and industrial education and assistant director of the State board for vocational education, died April 13 of a heart ailment.

Mr. Gunn, who was born in 1884, received his early training in Green Bay, Wis., schools and his bachelor's degree from Stout Institute, taught and served as principal in Green Bay High School, and for 5 years was director of the Green Bay Vocational School. He served for many years as secretary of the National Association of State Supervisors of Trade and Industrial Education.

Probably no other one person is better able to appraise the work and character of Mr. Gunn than George P. Hambrecht, director of vocational education for Wisconsin, with whom Mr. Gunn worked in close contact for so many years. "Ed Gunn's life was his best eulogy," Mr. Hambrecht declares. "Tireless, dynamic, and with unusual powers of leadership, he was able to make important contributions to the education of the out-of-school

group. His professional and personal qualities were so happily combined that his influence was not of the official kind. He was sympathetic, understanding, and democratic. In his passing Wisconsin lost a great public servant and vocational education a real leader."

Industrial Arts Conference

The second Four-State Conference on problems of the industrial-arts teacher and supervisor will be held at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans., October 6 and 7, 1939.

Five principal problems will be discussed at this conference. R. B. McHenry, director, industrial education, Fort McHenry, Ark., will lead a discussion on Administrative Problems of the Supervisor of Industrial Arts. William T. Bawden, head of Department of Industrial and Vocational Education, Kansas State Teachers College, will lead a discussion on the Development of Democratic Ideals Through Industrial-Arts Experiences. Problems of Federally Aided and Sponsored Industrial Education will be discussed by James C. Woodin, director, industrial education, Wichita, Kans., public schools. O. B. Badger, director, industrial education, Tulsa, Okla., will be the leader of a discussion on the topic, Significance of the Concept of Integration in the Industrial-Arts Program, and Effective Methods of Organizing Instructive Materials in Industrial Arts will be discussed by Hoyt H. London, department of industrial education, University of Missouri.

For Junior Executives

One of the most interesting courses in the field of distributive education reported by the States is that for junior executives in operation in Augusta, Ga.

This course, which, in most instances is given in evening classes, most of them between the hours of 6:30 and 7:30 p. m., are held in an assembly room in a convenient downtown building, and are presented by those who are specialists or who are actually employed in the fields they teach. The course in buying methods is taught by the buyer in a local department store; in personnel, by a representative of the extension division of the University of Georgia; in employee welfare by a member of the faculty of the Augusta Junior College and an insurance broker; in advertising, by the advertising manager of a local newspaper; in receiving and delivery practices, by the head of the receiving department of a department store; in store organization by the manager of a department store; and in retail economics by the professor of economics in the Augusta Junior College. Likewise courses in store credit, merchandise control, display, adjustments, and management are taught by experts in these respective fields.

To enter the course for junior executives an individual must have completed at least 1 year of employment in the store he represents; must be at least 21 years of age; must possess

promising executive qualifications; and must have had selling experience. A diploma issued by the Richmond County Board of Education and the Vocational Division of the Department of Education is presented to each student upon satisfactory completion of the junior executives' course. Hilda Anthony is coordinator of the courses in the distributive occupations in Augusta.

New Rehabilitation Agent

William J. Strachan has been appointed field agent for the blind in the vocational rehabilitation division, Office of Education.

Prior to matriculation in the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., in 1914, Mr. Strachan spent 1 year at Leonard Preparatory School, New York City. For 6 years after his graduation from the Naval Academy he was connected with the United States Navy as a member of the Queenstown destroyer force during the War; as a destroyer commander following the War; and as flag lieutenant in charge of maintenance and upkeep and public relations representative on the staff of Admiral Frederick Brewster Bassett, com-



William J. Strachan.

mander of destroyer squadrons on the Atlantic coast.

Following the completion of his service with the Navy, Mr. Strachan entered the vocational rehabilitation field in the New York office of the United States Veterans' Administration where he served consecutively as rehabilitation assistant; chief of rehabilitation for the New York area; chief of rehabilitation and of employment for district 2, including New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut; area coordinator for rehabilitation in the Atlantic States; and chief of the supply department.

During the 3 years immediately preceding his appointment to the staff of the rehabilitation service of the Office of Education on April 1, 1939, Mr. Strachan was engaged in the wholesale produce business in New York City.

Mr. Strachan's duties as field agent for the blind will be to render assistance to the State agencies responsible for the placement of blind persons in charge of refreshment stands in public buildings, as provided for under the Randolph-Sheppard Act, in carrying out and improving this service.

Family and Community Share

Homemaking projects are developed as family projects as well as individual projects, under the plan followed by home economics students enrolled in many Alabama high schools.

The girl who undertakes a homemaking project is encouraged to plan it not with her own benefit alone in mind but with the idea that the working out of her project should serve to cement family relationships and foster a spirit of cooperation among members of the family. In her preliminary planning she takes into consideration such factors as the probable reactions of the family to the project, the money available to her for such supplies or material as she may need in carrying it through, the ambitions and personal needs of various family members that may have a bearing upon her project, and the assistance she may need from family members.

The student is further encouraged by the teacher to plan her project with the members of the family as a group so that she may know in advance just where each member fits into the plan and what contribution each member is to make.

An attempt is made by home economics teachers to have students plan projects on a long-time basis so that they may be in better position to make a broader application of the units studied at school. For example, a girl who undertakes a project calling for "making home an inviting place for family and friends," gets experience in applying the principles of art, house planning, and family relationships learned in class.

In a number of centers home-project experiences have been expanded into group or community projects. In one community teacher and students divided themselves into groups according to communities represented, and each group mapped out a project to be worked on during the summer. One group selected as its project, "providing wholesome recreation for the young," and another group, "improving the school library." Students who engaged in these and similar projects unconsciously learned the value of extending home-project activities into the realm of civic responsibility.

C. M. ARTHUR



EDUCATIONAL NEWS



In Public Schools

New School Journal

The first issue of *Our Schools*, a journal of the Los Angeles city schools prepared at the direction of Superintendent Vierling Kersey, was published in March 1939. The journal will be issued four times a year, and will consist of materials presented pictorially and descriptively from and for the Los Angeles schools. "The journal exists," says Superintendent Kersey, "for serving the needs of children, through exchange of ideas, reports of activities, and analyses of conditions."

Essentials of a Good School

A score of Pennsylvania city school systems are being studied for the purpose of discovering not only what constitutes a good school, but of discovering ways and means of improving public schools throughout the State. State Superintendent Lester K. Ade reports that "A carefully worked out technique in measuring the effectiveness of various school activities is being used by those participating in the survey. This technique touches on every phase of the public school, including enrollment, the program of studies, teachers, library and laboratory facilities, school plant, equipment, and the like. Already the following schools have been surveyed on this basis: Norristown, Johnstown, Reading, Beaver Falls, Erie, Williamsport, Wilkes-Barre, Chambersburg, Altoona, Souderton, Harrisburg, and Downingtown.

"The program carried out in each visitation begins with free visitation of the school on the part of guests throughout the day. In the evening administrators, teachers, members of the department, and others who are interested, assemble in the school building and discuss their observations in the light of the standards used in evaluating public-school procedures. During this meeting the application of these standards is discussed by experts and others in attendance. This conference affords an opportunity for an explanation of the accomplishments of the survey, and for a consideration of ways and means of improving the secondary schools of the State."

Increased Demand

The State commissioner of education of Arkansas in his recent biennial report says that "a direct outgrowth of the expanding public-school program has been an increased demand upon the State board of education and the State department for services. The increasing conception of education as a State function rather than a local function has tended to shift greater responsibilities to the State agencies supervising the schools. Consequently, the functions of the State department of education have been materially in-

creased within the past few years. Increased duties have been given each division of the department and several new divisions have been created."

Florida Manual

A committee on useful materials of instruction, appointed by M. W. Carothers, director of instruction of the Florida State department of public instruction, has, under the direction of A. R. Mead, director of the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Florida, prepared a manual for Florida teachers on Using the Textbook Effectively. Among the topics treated are: Textbook materials in relation to objectives of learning; utilizing the learners' previous experience; supplementing textbook materials; and the textbook in a progressive program.

Fiftieth Anniversary

The course in industrial arts in the public schools of Minneapolis, Minn., observed its fiftieth anniversary on April 20, 1939. From 1 small class in sloyd, or wood carving with a knife only, at old Central High School, the course has grown to an industrial arts department of 23 courses, with an enrollment of more than 9,000 pupils. In addition to these courses, there are also regular industrial trade courses given in the 2 vocational high schools of that city.

Instruction in Conservation

A program of instruction in conservation of natural resources is being organized for use in Michigan schools by a committee recently appointed by Eugene B. Elliott, superintendent of public instruction. The committee is asking all teachers in the State who are giving instruction in conservation to furnish information as to what is being done and how it is being done.

Hawaii's School Report

Hawaii's Schools in their Community is the title of the Biennial Report of the Department of Public Instruction of that Territory. The report portrays, largely by pictures, the various opportunities offered the boys and girls of Hawaii.

"The chief aim of the schools," as set forth in this report, "is to give pupils an education which will fit them to make a good life for themselves here in the islands. The schools include in the program such things as personal and community health, intelligent thinking, wholesome emotional attitudes, recreational and leisure time activities, creative activities, skills, information, and specific vocational training. The schools aim to help young people to grow along all desirable lines to the end that they will be able to take their places in the community as good neighbors and productive citizens."

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH

In Colleges

Chancellor Retires

Chancellor Ernest H. Lindley ends his 19 years of service to the University of Kansas as Chancellor July 1. During these years the physical plant of the university has doubled in size and more degrees have been granted graduating students than in all of the rest of the university's 75 years, it is reported.

Summer Institute for Social Progress

A summer institute for social progress will be held July 8-22, 1939, at Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass. The institute will consider the question, How Can We Make Democracy Work. The director of the institute is Dorothy P. Hill, 22 Oakland Place, Buffalo, N. Y.

Loras College Centennial

The centennial anniversary of Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa, known until recently as Columbia College, was celebrated May 28 and 29. This institution was established in 1839 as St. Raphael College and Seminary by the Most Reverend Mathias Loras, D. D. The name of the institution was officially changed to Loras College in honor of the founder of the diocesan college.

Radio Research

The University of Puerto Rico initiated in 1934 an important program of radio research. There are now five projects under way under the direction of G. W. Kenrick, professor of physics, who has worked with transmission phenomenon for many years. The geographical location of Puerto Rico makes it of particular interest to the radio investigator. Since the island is far from the North Magnetic pole, magnetic storms due to disturbances on the sun have much less effect on the reception of European stations in Puerto Rico than they do in New York where, during such disturbances, the signals are sometimes so weak that they have no commercial value.

Puerto Rico is situated more than a thousand miles from a large land mass, making it an ideal receiving site for short-wave stations located in all parts of the world. Within a few minutes, it is frequently possible to record on a dictaphone stations in every continent.

Also, Puerto Rico lies very nearly on the great circle path between New York and Buenos Aires or Rio de Janeiro, so that automatic recorders at the radio laboratory enable the engineer to estimate the broadcast service the North American stations are giving to South America.

In one of the investigations, static, the bugbear of every radio listener, is being traced to its sources, which are usually in tropical thunderstorms. Thus, atmospheres have their own interesting story to tell of the formation and movement of weather disturbances.

The most fundamental research in progress is the determination of the characteristics of the ionosphere, or "radio roof," that layer of the atmosphere responsible for long-distance short-wave radio transmission.

Eight automatic recorders working day and night accumulate data on fading, caused by changes in the ionosphere.

New Institute of Technology

The Walter P. Murphy Foundation has appropriated the sum of \$6,500,000 for the establishment of an Institute of Technology at Northwestern University. Construction of the buildings will begin immediately.

The institute will be conducted on the co-operative plan, under which students will spend alternate periods in the classrooms and laboratories and in carefully selected cooperating industries. There will be four divisions—civil, mechanical, electrical, and chemical engineering.

Student Posture Slumps

The average college man at the University of Kansas, according to a survey recently completed by R. I. Canuteson, director of health service at the university, loses half an inch in height between his freshman and senior years. This is accounted for by the posture of the students for there is an increasing tendency to slump as they advance in the university, it is reported.

Recently 168 graduating students were examined by the student hospital to determine what physical changes, if any, occur during the average college student's 4-year career. Besides a change in height, the health service examiners found that the average man gains 10.80 pounds during the 4 years; that he weighed 140.8 pounds when he entered and 151.6 when he graduated; and that he was 19.27 years old at entrance, and 22.42 years old at graduation.

Fifty-five of the 168 suffered no illnesses during their entire college career; 30 underwent operations such as appendectomies or tonsillectomies, or suffered broken bones, 14 had communicable diseases. The average student's blood pressure was lower at graduation than at entrance. Doctor Canuteson explained that this might be possible because the nervous tension of the freshman is great when he finds himself in new situations and surroundings.

Apparently study in college does not harm the eyesight of the students. At entrance 92 of the 168 had normal vision, but at graduation 101 of the students had no vision defects.

College was not as easy on the heart as it was on the rest of the body, however, for as freshman only one of the 168 had any organic heart disease. At graduation four students showed traces of organic heart disturbances. Eight as freshman were subject to functional heart diseases, which might be caused by fatigue, too many cigarettes, alcohol or overexertion. At graduation 12 were subject to the functional heart trouble.

Engineers for a Day

Several hundred secondary school boys from 15 States were "engineers for a day" at Cornell University on Saturday, May 6. Brought to Ithaca by alumni, the boys were shown moving pictures, laboratory demonstrations, and special exhibits to give them a clear idea of the various fields of engineering, the kinds of instruction offered by the College of Engineering at Cornell, and the many types of business and industrial concerns that employ Cornell engineering graduates.

The engineering demonstration formed a part of the annual Cornell Day when 700 selected high-school and preparatory-school boys were given a taste of campus life and guidance in the choice of their careers. More than a score of exhibits, prepared by major United States industries, Federal bureaus, and other organizations in which Cornell alumni hold key positions, indicated the kinds of opportunities open to Cornell engineers after graduation.

WALTON C. JOHN



In Libraries

Permanent Exhibit

The Connecticut State Board of Education, Bureau of Supervision, announces a permanent exhibit of selected library materials for elementary and secondary schools. This exhibit, housed at the Teachers College in New Britain, has been established through the cooperation of publishers for the purpose of acquainting superintendents, principals, and teachers with the best available library books on various grade levels and in the different subject areas. A committee of the State department has made the selection, keeping especially in mind the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils.

Libraries Indispensable

The revised national plan for libraries, recently adopted by the American Library Association, gives an important place to school libraries. Pointing out that libraries are indispensable to the modern program of elementary and secondary education, the plan recommends that "larger schools . . . should be provided with organized libraries presided over by professionally prepared personnel and that smaller schools should be provided with books and organized library service through participation in some plan of large-unit administration."

In order to attain these conditions, "It will . . . be necessary for boards of education to budget school libraries and library service on the same basis as they are accustomed to budget other educational indispensables such as textbooks and teaching service." This national plan also adds: "Knowledge of books for the general reading of children and youth and skill in stimulating and guiding young people in their use of books should be a part of every teacher's professional equipment."

New Regulation

The superintendent of public instruction of Virginia has called attention of division superintendents to the new regulation in that State, that, "Beginning with the session 1940-41, every library in an accredited school shall be under the direction of a teacher-librarian certificated in library science by the State department of education and assigned to the library for a minimum of two consecutive periods daily. Schools with an enrollment of more than 200 should have a full-time librarian with 12 to 15 college session hours in library science."

Bookmobile Moves on

Rural schools in 3 of the 10 New Hampshire counties now have library service through the bookmobile of the Public Library Commission. According to a statement prepared by Ruth E. Whittier of the commission, many of the rural schools visited by this traveling collection of 500 books have no access to any public library. This new direct service affords teachers and pupils an opportunity of seeing and selecting their own books instead of depending upon parcel-post shipments from the commission's office in Concord.

RALPH M. DUNBAR



In the Office of Education

Becomes Consultant

Rall I. Grigsby, director of secondary education and pupil adjustment in the Des Moines, Iowa, school system for the past 10 years, has accepted a position as educational and technical consultant in curriculum problems on the staff of the Office of Education. Mr. Grigsby entered upon his new duties May 1.

Radio Award

Another award has been made to the Office of Education's radio feature, *Americans All—Immigrants All*. The program, *Jews in the United States*, broadcast over the CBS network, received honorable mention in the third American exhibition of recordings of educational radio programs at the Eleventh Institute for Education by Radio held in Columbus, Ohio, May 1, 2, and 3. *Americans All—Immigrants All* shared the honorable mention distinction with the NBC feature, *Great Plays*. There were approximately 25 entries in the network dramatization class in which the *Americans All—Immigrants All* program was included.

The first award for the *Americans All—Immigrants All* series came from the Women's National Radio Committee which named it the most "original and informative radio program of the year."

Succeeding *Americans All—Immigrants All*, on the CBS network each Sunday (1 p. m. E. S. T.) is a new Office of Education radio series, "Democracy in Action."

Collecting Statistics

Collection of educational statistics throughout the United States is one of the many responsibilities of the Office of Education. During the past month David T. Blose, Henry G. Badger, and Lester B. Herlihy of the Statistical Division have traveled in Florida, Georgia, Iowa, Nebraska, New Mexico, South Carolina, and Texas, collecting statistics for the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.

JOHN H. LLOYD



In Other Government Agencies

National Park Service

Fees in the 34 Federal recreational demonstration areas situated in 24 States have been revised, according to recent announcement from the National Park Service, as follows:

The fee for use of trailer camp sites is 50 cents for a permit good for 30 days. A charge of 5 cents per night per camper and 20 cents per week per camper for the use of tent camp sites is charged for organized groups. The regular fee of 25 cents per night per camper is reduced to 15 cents in cases where movable equipment such as mattresses, dishes, etc., are not provided.

Rates for use of permanent camps for seasonal organized camps are as follows: For camps of 120 camper capacity, \$720 for a 10-week season; 96 capacity, \$576; 80 capacity, \$480; 72 capacity, \$432; 48 capacity, \$288; and 24 capacity, \$144.

These demonstration areas are neither national nor State parks, but a new type of area making use of land better suited to recreation than to any other purpose. (See illustration.)

For further information address the National Park Service, Washington, D. C.

* * *

A new museum in which geologic history from before the advent of man to the present time is depicted was opened recently at Guernsey Lake State Park, Wyoming. The National Park Service, in cooperation with

other Federal agencies, prepared the exhibits picnic tables, roads, trails, bridges, shelters, composed mostly of specimens and relics, maps, charts, illustrations, dioramas, miniature group paintings, and photographs.

The park, about 3 miles from U. S. Highway 26 and 70 miles west of Scotts Bluff National Monument in Nebraska, has been provided by CCC enrollees with outdoor fireplaces,



Courtesy of the National Park Service.

Federal recreational demonstration area in the Ozarks.

beaches, parking areas, and other facilities for park recreationists.

National Youth Administration

More than 30 States have indicated their intention of participating in the program under which the National Youth Administration proposes to construct and install landing floats of standardized types designed by the Civil Aeronautics Authority as seaplane bases for water airports.

Negotiations have already started for building and installing more than 100 floats along the Atlantic coast and the Gulf of Mexico.

The program also calls for the fabrication of standardized airport equipment consisting of wind cones, range cones, dollies, corner markers, wind socks, and moorings for public waterports and landing fields.

NYA map-making projects will be part of the general program to follow the establishment of seaplane bases.

MARGARET F. RYAN



The Primary Unit

(Concluded from page 298)

Los Angeles indicated from the following report that the children do learn, but that they learn when they are ready to learn and learn most effectively when they are ready: "In general, it is true (1) that reading results in the lower groups in a no-failure school are below average; (2) that reading is not stressed in lower groups as in the conventional school; (3) that the reading progresses more slowly in the lower groups; (4) that children learn to read later and (5) that these children learn to read because they are ready and want to read,

the reading program becomes tremendously accelerated, the apparent handicap is made up, and reading results in the upper groups exceed reading results in the upper grades of the conventional school."

This type of program tends to develop an active and realistic cooperation between classroom and school-service departments for curriculum, child study, home visiting, guidance, records, and reports. It tends to function as a major factor in the teacher's growth in service. It enlists the parents' interest and coopera-

tion. It makes an appeal to the average citizen who has many secret regrets about frustrations and defeats in his early childhood and who is coming more and more to look for preventions rather than corrections of many social and mental maladjustments of youth and adults.

With proof of the value of the nonpromotion plan in the primary school, the same principles are being applied at the intermediate grade level. Minneapolis has a study program in progress in grades 4, 5, and 6 which will eventually lead to the nonpromotion organization in the intermediate grades. In many school systems the intermediate promotional unit is already functioning. In Forest Park "the reorganization is being extended this year to the intermediate and departmental departments" where some of the features of the regular set-up will be retained for the present—a platoon plan and a departmentalized junior high school. In Glencoe "ultimately the plan of organization will be five communities or interest groupings, designated as preprimary, primary, postprimary, early secondary, and later secondary. Within these organized groups of children the problems and activities of community life will be increasingly emphasized as the basis of curricular experiences."

Superintendent's Evaluation

The following evaluation by Superintendent Dimmett of Forest Park, gives an excellent



Planning and careful measuring are needed for making party cookies.

insight into the goals of the nonpromotion, school-unit program.

"The product of the new schools, the pupils, will come ultimately to receive their ratings in the new society in which they will take their places. This evaluation must needs bide time's passing. Any evaluation made right now of the school's product becomes a combination of impression and hope. The impression is that pupils in the new school have the opportunity to be happier and to lead more vital and purposeful lives. The confident hope of all who are promoting the plan is that pupil growth, physical, mental, social, and emotional, will tend to be normalized, that integrated personality development will be fostered, and that educational proc-

esses will be freed of many repressions and formalities that have hitherto nurtured learning inhibitions and unwholesome attitudes. There is no guarantee that all teachers and all teaching will automatically become superlatively effective simply because of the new plan. Teaching skill and artistry is probably more essential than it has ever been. Weaknesses in teaching strategy will be more prominent than ever before."

One of the teachers whose participation in the reorganization has been energetic was asked to state her own evaluation of the plan. Her statement is quoted verbatim:

"Children:

1. Have more interest and enjoyment in school.
2. Are happier because of their constant success in 'beating' their own records.
3. Learn more readily because there is purpose and desire to motivate the learning.
4. Find less of a break between school and the rest of their environment.

"Teachers:

1. Are challenged to see that every child grows to the best of his ability.
2. Find pleasure in the continued successes of happy children formerly considered "failures" because they did not fit in the common mold.
3. Are able to be more natural in their teaching.

"The School:

1. Is made more attractive to all concerned.
2. Is becoming more of a center to the community."

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Early American School Music Books

(Concluded from page 291)

teaching the clefs, staff, time, notes, etc., the material taken from the chapters, or lessons in the little schoolbooks was augmented by the blackboard in this way. The solfeggio, or the syllables *do, re, mi*, etc., was taught first, and later the words were written in. The books contained about one-third lessons, and two-thirds songs, the latter consisting of chants, rounds, secular songs, and a few hymns.

There were a few other pioneers in the early days who were writing and teaching school music in the Boston vicinity, among them were Jules Eichberg, J. B. Sharland, John W. Tufts, and Frederick Zuchtmann, some of whom contributed series of courses, viz, the normal course, national music course, American music course, educational music course, natural music course, modern music course, etc., most of which were published from 1870 to 1880.

In appearance the music books are small as to size, tiny in some cases, either square or oblong in shape, adapted to the size of the little old spinets or reed organs of those days; the bindings are pasteboard, tan or pinkish-gray in color, and printed on both covers.

The prefaces and introductions contain interesting statements reflecting trends and purposes, often couched in the quaint language of the times. A few of these are quoted here, with their sources:

The Young Choir, by Bradbury and Sanders, contains the following appraisal of music attributed to S. W. Seton: "I doubt not but that through its means many families and schools have become nests of cooing harmony, where before was the jarring war of discord and ill nature . . . having the greatest power of influence over the disposition and manners; soothes and cheers, inspires and consoles, and may be said to be the charm of infancy, the delight of youth, and the solace of old age."

The Song Book of the School Room, by Lowell Mason and George J. Webb, 1848, has the following in its preface: "The variety is thought to be greater than in most similar works, including the sprightly and enlivening, the calm and soothing, and the sober and devout." Among the songs are *Oft in the Still Night*, *The Happy Farmer*, *God Bless Our Native Land* (*not America*).

The Rochester School Song Book, by W. T. Marriman, 1847, states: "The poetry sung by the youth cannot be too carefully selected . . . corrupt poetry, like bad company, has a degrading, pernicious tendency upon the minds of the young . . . they should never be allowed to sing low, doggerel rhymes." We need to bear this thought in mind more than ever today.

Such are descriptions of a few of the oldest and most outstanding of the school music books, as they were written and brought into use in the schools of this country. Most of them are in the library of the Office of Education, or in the Library of Congress.

A partial list of the early school music books follows. Those marked with an asterisk (*) are in the Office of Education library.

*AIKEN, SQUIRE, POWELL, and WILLIAMS, VICTOR. *The young singer's manual*. A new collection of songs and solfeggios; selected principally from the works of the great masters, classified and adapted to the use of schools, academies, and colleges. Cincinnati, Wilson, Hinkle & Co.; Philadelphia, Claxton, Remsen, and Haffelfinger; New York, Clark & Maynard, 1866. 192 p. music.

*AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS. . . . *The Cherokee singing book*. Boston, Mass., By Alonzo P. Kenrick, at C. Hickling's office, 20 Devonshire Street, 1846. 87 p.

BLANCHARD, AMOS. *The American musical primer*. Boston, Salem, etc., Norris and Sawyer, 1808. 77 p.

BRADBURY, WILLIAM and SANDERS, CHARLES W. *The young choir*. Adapted to the use of juvenile singing schools, Sabbath schools, primary classes, etc. New York, Dayton and Newman, 1842. 144 p. music.

BRITTAN, N. and SHERWOOD, L. H., eds. *The school song and hymn book*. Designed for general use in schools, academies, and seminaries. New York, A. S. Barnes & Co.; Cincinnati, H. W. Darby & Co., 1850. 386 p.

*BURROWES, J. F. *The piano-forte primer*; containing the rudiments of music; calculated either for private tuition, or teaching in classes. . . . Fifth American edition . . . New York, Firth & Hall, No. 4 Franklin Square, 1844. 60, 12, p. illus. music.

COLCOTT, J. W. *Musical grammar in four parts*. I. Notation of melody. II. Harmony; III. Melody; IV. Rhythm. Boston, James Loring, Washington St., 1838. 4th ed. 216 p.

*HAMILTON, J. A. *A new theoretical and practical musical grammar*, adapted to the present state of the science Price, \$1. New York. Published by Hewitt & Jaques . . . 1839. 264 p. music

*KINGSBURY, O. R. *Songs of Zion*. A manual of the best and most popular hymns and tunes for social and private devotion . . . New York, Boston, Published by the American Tract Society, 1851. 192 p.

MARRIMAN, WILLIAM T. *The Rochester school songbook*; containing a selection of social, moral and patriotic songs, compiled for the public schools of Rochester, by William T. Marriman. . . . second edition. Rochester, Sage & Brother, 40 Buffalo St., E. Shepard's Power Press, 1847. 48 p.

*MASON, LOWELL. *The Boston school songbook*. Published under the sanction of the Boston Academy of Music. Original and selected. Boston, J. H. Wilkins & R. B. Carter, 1841. 128 p.

— The juvenile lyre: or, hymns and songs, religious, moral and cheerful, set to appropriate music, for the use of primary and common schools. Boston, Richardson, Lord and Holbrook, 1832. 72 p.

— Mason's normal singer. New York, Mason Brothers, 108-110 Duane Street, 1856. 192 p.

— Musical exercises for singing schools, to be used in connection with The Manual of the Boston Academy of Music, for instruction in the elements of vocal music Boston, G. W. Palmer & Co. and J. H. Wilkins & R. B. Carter, 1838. [126 unnum. p.]

— and WEBB, GEORGE JAMES. *The songbook of the schoolroom*; cons'ting of a great variety of songs, hymns, and scriptural selections with appropriate music; arranged to be sung in one, two, or three parts; containing also the elementary principles of vocal music . . . Boston, Wilkins, Carter & Co., 1848. 224 p.

[PEABODY, AUGUSTUS.] *The child's songbook*, for the use of schools and families. Boston, Richardson, Lord and Holbrook, 1830.

*PRATT, GEORGE W., and JOHNSON, J. C. *Pestalozzian school songbook*. Boston, A. N. Johnson; New York, William B. Billings; 1852. 221 p. music.

*REED, EPHRAIM, and EDSON, W. J. *Musical monitor*, or New York collection of Church music: to which is prefixed the elementary classbook; or, An introduction to the science of musick, arranged and systematized by William J. Edson. . . . fifth revised edition, enlarged and improved. Ithaca, Printed by Mack & Andrus, 1827. 256 p.

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